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ABSTRACT

This conference proceedings report includes: (1) "Grading Papers More Objectively and Effectively," by Anita M. Meehan; (2) "The Use of Student Workbooks in Introductory Psychology Courses," by Donna L. Reittinger and Kathleen Crowley-Long; (3) "Curriculum Integration and Cross-Cultural Psychology," by Susan B. Goldstein; (4) "Student Outcomes and Evaluation of an Undergraduate Course on Ethical Issues in Psychological Research and Practice," by John B. Morganti; (5) "Using Active Learning to Teach Critical Thinking," by James Bell; (6) "A Different Approach to Sensation and Perception in the Introductory Psychology Course," by Laura L. Snodgrass; (7) "Teaching the Reluctant Student: Coping with the Resistance," by Robert A. Bernstein; (8) "A Trans-Disciplinary Writing Project in Introductory Psychology," by Alan C. Tjeltveit; (9) "Who Is This Child? Children's Literature in a Human Development Class," by Joan C. Mulligan and Lynn A. Book; (10) "The Teaching of Psychology with a Gender-Balanced Curriculum," by Stacey Beth Zaremba; and (11) "Freud, Problem Solving, Ethnicity, and Race: Integrating Psychology into the Interdisciplinary Core Curriculum," by Dana S. Dunn. A copy of the complete conference program is provided. (PAA)

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ED350058

Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations
Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology
(6th, Ellenville, NY, March 18-20, 1992)

Presented by
The Psychology Department of
SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY

Edited by
Judith R. Levine
Gene Indenbaum

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Introduction

The Psychology Department of the State University of New York College of Technology at Farmingdale was proud to sponsor the Sixth Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology. The conference was held at the Nevele Country Club in Ellenville, NY on March 18-20, 1992.

The highlights of the conference were the keynote addresses by Stanley Sue and Lester Sdorow, who both spoke on the conference theme of Cultural Diversity in the Teaching of Psychology. Twenty-three refereed papers addressed a wide range of topics in the teaching of psychology. Eleven of those presentations are included here. An array of publishers' exhibits were also available for the duration of the conference.

In any undertaking of this magnitude the work and the credit must be shared by a number of people. Thanks must be extended to Stan Feist for his hard work on this conference as well as the previous five conferences. His retirement led to the formation of an entire conference committee to take his place. Sandra Hartog and Michael Hackett worked diligently and strenuously since October, 1991 to make the conference work. Appreciation is extended to the Psychology Department Chairperson, David Griese', for his support, help, and encouragement in involving all members of the department with the conference. Last, but not least, we thank the department's secretary, Barbara Sarringer, for her endless help in the registration and administration process both at Farmingdale and at the conference site.

CONFERENCE PROGRAM

the 6th annual conference on undergraduate

TEACHING of PSYCHOLOGY:

IDEAS & INNOVATIONS

presented by

The Psychology Department

of

SUNY COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY AT
FARMINGDALE, NY

on

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 18, THURSDAY, MARCH 19,
and
FRIDAY, MARCH 20, 1992

Wednesday, March 18, 1992

2:00 PM to 3:00 PM — REGISTRATION
PUBLISHERS' DISPLAYS
COFFEE

3:00 PM to 4:30 PM — **SESSION 1**

Room 1: Presider: *Tony Walsh, Hudson Valley Community College, NY*

Workshop: Teaching for Empowerment: A Feminist Approach to a Pedagogy for Diversity
Geri A. Dino, Frostburg State University, MD

Information, resources, and "hands on" experience with a variety of feminist pedagogical techniques that focus on creating a classroom environment where all students feel empowered, and where multiple perspectives are recognized, valued and analyzed in a climate characterized by collaboration and cooperation will be presented. After a review of the literature, participants will work in small groups sharing our experiences with incorporating multicultural content and process into our courses and examining the ways in which our own gender, race, and ethnicity has influenced our teaching. Finally, there will be discussion, demonstration and practice of several teaching strategies designed to accomplish the goals stated above.

Room 2: Presider: *Laura Snodgrass, Muhlenberg College, PA*

Grading Papers More Objectively and Effectively
Anita M. Meehan, Kutztown University, PA

I will provide and discuss copies of the evaluation criteria I have developed for grading three different types of assignments: (1) APA style research reports where content and mechanics both count, (2) APA style research reports where the emphasis is on content not mechanics, and (3) term projects where I use the same criteria for assignments as diverse as literature reviews, case studies, book reviews, and personal journals.

The Use of Student Workbooks in Introductory Psychology Courses
Donna L. Reittinger & Kathleen Crowley-Long, College of St. Rose, NY

We will describe the results of a survey done in the Fall 1990 semester in four Introductory Psychology classes concerning their use of the student workbook that accompanies the Coon textbook. The extent of usage, techniques for encouraging compliance, reasons for non-compliance, and possible relation to achievement will be discussed. Special emphasis on the use of workbooks with minority students will follow the presentation.

5:30 PM to 7:00 PM — RECEPTION

7:00 PM — DINNER

INVITED ADDRESS: STANLEY SUE, noted author and lecturer

Teaching Psychology to a Multicultural Audience

Invited Speaker and Reception Courtesy of Houghton Mifflin Co.

VISIT OUR HOSPITALITY ROOM

Thursday, March 19, 1992

8:00 AM BREAKFAST

9:30 AM to 11:00 AM SESSION 2

Room 1 Presider: Gerorge Fago, Ursinus College, PA

Workshop: The Uses of Drama in Psychology
Barry Fritz, Quinnipiac College, CT

This workshop will introduce techniques, taken from training in acting, which can be used to illustrate psychological concepts in a variety of courses. I will share my experiences teaching specific courses on Psychology and Theater and on Psychology and Humor. The methods of instruction will be described as will examples of readings and class assignments, including those which deal with issues of cultural diversity. Participants in the workshop will be asked to engage in acting exercises and readings of dramatic scripts.

Room 2 Presider: *Fred Halper, Essex County College, NJ*

Curriculum Integration and Cross-Cultural Psychology
Susan B. Goldstein, University of Redlands, CA

This presentation explores the need for curriculum integration in the cross-cultural psychology course, both in terms of course content and pedagogy, and discusses how the "emic-etic distinction", a concept used in cross-cultural methodology, might be applied to the curriculum integration of psychology courses in general.

Curriculum Integration from a Service Quality Perspective
Deborah Mahlstedt & Arvid J. Bloom, West Chester University, PA

Curriculum integration involves choices about course content, teaching style, classroom atmosphere, grading procedures, and ways to practice or apply learnings. The aim is to redefine and transform the androcentric and ethnocentric base of knowledge which characterizes much of the present curriculum for psychology instruction. Our model implicitly incorporates curriculum integration goals into teaching since it focuses upon understanding and responding to diverse student needs in an ongoing way. In addition to presenting our model, we will also share findings from a 240 respondent survey based on it.

11:00 AM to 11:20 AM COFFEE BREAK

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11:25 AM to 12:45 PM SESSION 3

Room 1 Presider: *Gene Indenbaum, SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY*

Workshop: A Model for Teaching Introductory Psychology in a Multi-Cultural University Classroom
Yvonne V. Wells, University of Rhode Island, RI

This workshop will outline in some detail a model for 1. making use of diversity which already obviously exists in the class, 2. for introducing diversity where it is not evident, and 3. for making use of cultural difference between the instructor and the class. The presentation of this model will be facilitated by reference to specific examples from my own teaching experience, and I will make use of diversity within the workshop group to illustrate the workings of the model. A potential empirical design to test aspects of the model will be suggested.

Room 2 Presider: *Marilyn Blumenthal, SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY*

Student Outcomes and Evaluation of an Undergraduate Course on ethical Issues in Psychological Research and Practice
John B. Morganti, SUNY College at Buffalo, NY

This presentation will summarize the characteristics of an experimental course offered in the Fall of 1990, "Ethical Issues in Psychological Research and Practice," and review student reaction and performance outcomes. Selected examples of the products generated by students will be presented.

Reactions to Tandem and Individual Testing as a Function of Test Anxiety
Karen O'Quin, SUNY College at Buffalo, NY

I will discuss a study carried out in the Fall of 1991 which examined students' grades and their reactions to both regular and tandem examinations over the course of a semester. In addition, results from students high and low in test anxiety on a pretest will be compared. It is expected that subjects will like and will earn higher grades on tandem exams, with highly test anxious subjects doing the best if tandem testing lowers their anxiety. It is hoped that this study will make a fairly substantial contribution to a sparse literature.

1:00 PM to 2:00 PM LUNCH

2:10 PM to 3:30 PM SESSION 4

Room 1 Presider: *Eric Bowman, U.S. Naval Academy, MD*

Workshop: Using Active Learning to Teach Critical Thinking
James Bell, Howard Community College, MD

Although recent General Psychology textbooks mention critical thinking, students will not learn how to critically think just from reading a discussion in their textbooks. Students need to understand the difference between critical thinking and problem solving. In addition, students need to practice critical thinking and receive feedback. Ideas on how to teach critical thinking and get students to be active will be demonstrated and supplemented by an ample handout. Active learning techniques will be used with participants: they will think alone, with a partner, be able to ask questions, and discuss with others.

Room 2 Presider: *Michael Hackett, SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY*

A Different Approach to Sensation and Perception in the Introductory Psychology Course
Laura L. Snodgrass, Muhlenberg College, PA

I organize information from the sensation and perception chapters around classroom demonstrations of illusions and perceptual phenomena. All the phenomena can be understood in terms of physiology and three basic efficiency mechanisms used in sensory coding. The mechanisms and the demonstrations will be presented.

Teaching the Reluctant Student: Coping with the Resistance
Robert A. Bernstein, Marymount University, VA

In every class we teach, there are a number of students who are resistant to doing their work and who are not interested in learning. If the teacher tries to coerce the student into participating more fully in the learning process, a fruitless power struggle often ensues. Using as a model the resistance clinicians encounter in psychotherapy, this presentation will provide a more productive way that the student and teacher can join together in the learning process.

3:30 PM to 3:50 PM COFFEE BREAK

4:00 PM to 5:20 PM SESSION 5

Room 1 Presider: Karen O'Quin, *SUNY College at Buffalo, NY*

Workshop: Coping with Students' Emotional Reactions to Topics Related to Race and Culture
Lisa Whitten & Fred Millan, SUNY College at Old Westbury, NY

Students often react to the presentation of some racial and cultural topics in the college classroom with anger, apathy, defensiveness, acting out behavior, and other reactions which are potentially destructive to the learning environment. This workshop will include a brief review of the literature on how to effectively present lectures and promote discussions on controversial issues of a racial or cultural nature. Practical strategies for effectively managing students' emotional reactions will be presented. Numerous suggestions for small group sessions and for class projects will be shared, as well as resources such as films, articles and books. Discussion and participation in at least one small group activity will be encouraged.

Room 2 Presider: *Charles Dufour, Mercyhurst College, PA*

The Use of Oral Communication Exercises in Psychology
Terry G. Malcolm & Reginald G. Ross, Bloomfield College, NJ

While there has been an increased emphasis on writing across the curriculum, less attention has been directed toward oral communication skills, particularly for educationally disadvantaged students. Oral communication exercises from several psychology classes will be presented. These will include: moot courts, videotaped debates, videotaped mini-conferences (modeled after EPA), and panel discussions of films in which students are the "expert-witnesses".

A Trans-disciplinary Writing Project in Introductory Psychology
Alan C. Tjeltveit, Muhlenberg College, PA

Two recurrent themes in discussions of liberal arts and education are the need for students to learn to write well and the need for students to integrate what they learn across different disciplines. I will discuss a paper I assign to Introductory Psychology students that attempts to meet those needs. To be specific, students write about a "hero" of their own choosing from a psychological perspective, an ethical perspective, and from a viewpoint that connects those two perspectives in making sense of the hero. I will describe the assignment, its purposes, and how I address the challenges the paper poses to students.

6:00 PM to 7:00 PM RECEPTION

7:00 PM DINNER

INVITED ADDRESS: LESTER SDOROW, noted textbook author and lecturer

Introducing Students to Psychology Foremothers

Invited Speaker Courtesy of Wm. C. Brown

VISIT OUR HOSPITALITY ROOM

Friday, March 20, 1992

8:00 AM BREAKFAST

9:30 AM to 10:50 AM SESSION 6

Room 1 Presider: *Sandra Hartog, SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY*

Roundtable Discussion: Cross-Cultural Perspectives

Transforming the Introductory Psychology Course: An Integration of Diversity Within Diversity
Dolores Hughes, Iona College, NY

Although there have been attempts to develop pluralistic models for the teaching of psychology, these attempts have tended to treat each group (such as women, Blacks, or Hispanics) as if they were homogeneous. If we are going to integrate cultural diversity into any course, we must be knowledgeable about the vast diversity that exists within any group of people. This presentation will focus on ways to integrate this diversity into an Introductory Psychology course.

Integrating Cross-Cultural Perspectives into Undergraduate Psychology Coursework
Katherine Giscombe, Independent Consultant, NJ

This presentation will explore a cross-cultural framework that can be used to organize the presentation of psychological theories in undergraduate psychology classes. This framework can be used to understand the European slant in many psychological theories, and provide a context for integrating recent research on different cultures.

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Room 2 Presider: *Jack Rose, SUNY at Delhi, NY*

Teaching Abnormal Psychology: A Clinical Approach
Marilyn Blumenthal, SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY

I will discuss how a clinically-based teaching approach can be used to make Abnormal Psychology less abstract, i.e, more "real" or meaningful for students. The approach, itself, can be conceptualized as a developmental process that includes aspects of etiology, diagnosis, classification, prognosis, and therapy, rather than simply as a compendium of discrete teaching techniques. For example, an in-class survey method will be demonstrated that clearly points out that the statistics on frequency and incidence of mental disorder are not abstract numbers but relate directly or indirectly to the individuals in the class. A discussion of other aspects of the clinical approach will show how Abnormal Psychology can be demystified so that students can begin to realize that these issues and problems are not found only in their textbooks.

Having Student Apply What They Learn: Techniques for Bringing Life Experiences into the Classroom
Charles Dufour, Mercyhurst College, PA

Our low level psychology courses are filled with students from various disciplines and majors. Without an inherent interest in psychology, many of these students would normally leave psychology in the classroom without closely examining its natural application to daily living. I will describe several techniques that I have used that require students to bring psychology into their lives and then bring life experiences into the psychology classroom. In addition to psychological applications, these techniques help students' writing and oral presentation skills.

10:50 AM to 11:10 AM COFFEE BREAK

11:15 AM to 12:35 PM SESSION 7

Room 1 Presider: *Anita Meehan, Kutztown University, PA*

Who is this Child? Children's Literature in a Human Development Class
Joan C. Mulligan & Lynn A. Book, Green Mountain College, VT

Children's literature through different ages and cultures was used as the framework through which students and teachers became aware of the diversity of perspectives on child development. The presentation, by a Research Librarian and a Psychology Professor, will include a discussion of the evolution of assessment of this joint project in a child development class. A Sample bibliography will be made available.

Cultural and Ethnic Diversity in Newborn Temperament, Adolescent Development and Mental Illness
Thomas E. Nolan, American International College, MA

The purpose of this presentation is to review research findings on various aspects of development and abnormal behavior with regard to cultural and ethnic diversity. The following specific areas will be considered: 1. An examination of the striking differences in temperament and behavior among ethnic groups observable in young infants; 2. Discussion of the cross-cultural differences in adolescent development with regard to emotional autonomy, peer pressure and value autonomy; 3. An analysis of some unusual patterns of behavior considered to be culture-bound, such as "Anorexia Nervosa", "Latah", and "Kinsunetsuki"; 4. Discussion of the results of a survey on "Student Perception of Ethnic Background"; 5. A discussion of how educators, therapists, and parents can benefit from an increased awareness of cultural and ethnic diversity.

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Room 2 Presider: Joseph Riley, Mohawk Valley Community College, NY

The Teaching of Psychology With a Gender-Balanced Curriculum
Stacey B. Zaremba, Moravian College, PA

This presentation will focus on ways to gender-balance psychology curriculums. It will begin with a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages associated with conducting specialized courses on women (ie, Psychology of Women). Suggestions for gender-balancing the curriculum by mainstreaming women's issues into all psychology courses will be provided.

Freud, Problem Solving, Ethnicity, and Race: Integrating Psychology into the Interdisciplinary Core Curriculum
Dana S. Dunn, Moravian College, PA

Psychology can be an integral and flexible component within interdisciplinary core curricula. I will discuss how psychology is integrated into three of seven core courses in Moravian College's new core curriculum -- Microcosm/Macrocosm, Quantitative Problem Solving, and the Core Seminar. I will outline advantages for both students and faculty when psychology is taught within an interdisciplinary context.

1:00 PM to 2:00 PM LUNCH

CONFERENCE COMMITTEE: Stanley C. Feist, Chairman
Judith R. Levine, Program Chairperson
Michael Hackett
Sandra B. Hartog
Gene Indenbaum

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Grading Papers More Objectively and Effectively

Anita M. Meehan

Kutztown University

Writing is a fundamental part of the educational process and the "writing across the curriculum" movement has called for teachers in all disciplines to take a more active role in improving students' writing skills. Still, instructors are often reluctant to require writing exercises. According to Boice (1990), teachers rank the extra workload involved in reading and grading written reports as the number one drawback of such assignments. Although grading is not the sole purpose in requiring students to write, the reality is that most assignments must be graded. Due to its more subjective nature, teachers and students are also concerned about the grading criteria for written work. Strategies that reduce the arduous nature of evaluation are therefore needed if instructors are to incorporate more writing into their courses.

My purpose here is to present you with some strategies that aid me in being more objective and effective in grading writing assignments. But first I would like to describe how I used to grade papers. Like many of my colleagues, I would read a paper and develop an overall sense of whether it was an "A paper" or a "B paper," etc. This judgment was largely dependent on the student's writing style and whether the student evidenced comprehension of the material. Inevitably there were papers that were not clearly in one grade category or another. Did the paper deserve a B- or a

C+? I found myself resorting to grades such as B-/C+.

I was not satisfied with this system. I was concerned about the fairness and the consistency of my evaluations so I decided to develop a checklist specifying my evaluation criteria for a given assignment. Table 1 illustrates the rating sheet I use for an assignment in my Adolescent Psychology course. Students choose one of four paper options: They can do a case study of an adolescent, a review of a popular book giving advice about adolescence, keep a journal of their own memories of adolescence, or write a traditional literature review on a topic of their choice. Table 2 depicts the rating sheet I use to grade APA research papers in my Experimental Psychology course. This is essentially a research methods course where students carry out their own research project. It is also the course in my department's curriculum where students are required to learn APA style. The grading checklist in Table 3 is similar to that in Table 2 but I use this for APA research reports where the emphasis is on content not mechanics. I use this checklist in my Cognitive Psychology course.

Having specific criteria and associated point values keeps me on track while grading. Others also find formal evaluation criteria useful (e.g., Price, 1990). This procedure is also efficient. For example, I simply give a rating to each student's statement of

the hypothesis in a research report rather than repeatedly writing out comments like "good statement of the hypothesis" or "poor statement of the hypothesis." Attention is still paid to providing comments more specific to the content of the paper. I give students more feedback this way because they receive input on each criterion. Willingham (1990, p. 12) argues that "The student should know immediately which aspects of the paper need the most work, which need less work, and which aspects have been handled well." Using formal criteria accomplishes this objective. In addition, students are provided with the criteria when I make the assignments. I feel that I receive better papers because my expectations are clear and there is less of a guessing game for students as to "what the teacher wants."

I conducted a study to examine students' perceptions of the traditional grading method vs. a checksheet rating system. Subjects were 43 students (*M* age = 20.76 years, *SD* = 1.32) enrolled in my Statistics course. None had ever taken a course with me where I required a paper. There were 32 females and 11 males with 86% of the sample being psychology majors.Subjects read a description of a hypothetical term paper assigned by an instructor. This was followed by a description of two different ways of grading the papers. One way was the traditional method where the

teacher would read the papers putting positive and negative comments on each. The other way was to have the teacher use a list of criteria and subjects were told to assume the teacher used the checksheet shown in Table 1. In either case, the teacher was said to put a numerical grade on each paper and to follow the general guidelines given to students about the paper requirements. Subjects were then asked six questions about grading procedures where the possible responses were, "I'm not sure," "The two procedures are about the same," "Grading with comments," or "Grading with a checksheet." The questions were as follows:

1. Which grading procedure do you think provides a greater amount of feedback to students?
2. Which grading procedure do you think provides less variety of feedback to students?
3. Which grading procedure do you think provides a fairer evaluation by the teacher?
4. Which grading procedure do you think is better in helping the teacher be more consistent in grading papers?
5. Which grading procedure do you think makes it harder for students to understand why they got a certain grade on the paper?
6. Which grading procedure would you prefer to have the teacher use if your paper were being graded?

Chi-square tests of goodness of fit were used to compare the traditional grading procedure with the checksheet system. Results are presented in Table 4. The subjects thought that formal criteria on a checksheet would be significantly more likely to result in a fairer and more consistent evaluation by the teacher. The subjects thought that the traditional grading system with comments would result in less variety of feedback and would make it harder for students to understand why they received the grade they did. Subjects were significantly more likely to prefer the checksheet system over the traditional grading system. In open-ended responses, some subjects did express that the checksheet would be more impersonal and that they liked receiving comments from teachers. They seemed to think that the use of a checklist precluded the teacher from making comments, which is not the case.

On the whole, then, I find that there is merit in making grading criteria as explicit as possible. Developing a checksheet forces me to think about the objectives that I want to accomplish with a particular assignment. It makes sense to communicate those objectives to students and to provide them with feedback on how well they have met each of those objectives. Using formal criteria reduces the subjectivity of grading papers, but it does not

necessarily reduce the amount of time required for grading. I am unaware of a system that can do that and still do justice to the evaluation process.

References

Boice, R. (1990). Faculty resistance to writing-intensive courses. *Teaching of Psychology, 17*, 13-17.

Price, D. W. W. (1990). A model for reading and writing about primary sources: The case of introductory psychology. *Teaching of Psychology, 17*, 48-53.

Willingham, D. B. (1990). Effective feedback on written assignments. *Teaching of Psychology, 17*, 10-13.

Table 1

Criteria for General Papers

MAJOR CRITERIA:	5	4	3	2	1
Summary of source material	____	____	____	____	____
Integrates course material	____	____	____	____	____
General organization	____	____	____	____	____
Conclusions reached/defense	____	____	____	____	____
Approp. use of references	____	____	____	____	____
Writing style/clarity	____	____	____	____	____
Follows instructions	____	____	____	____	____

MINOR CRITERIA:	3	2	1
Length of paper	____	____	____
Amount & quality of references	____	____	____
References in APA style	____	____	____
Spelling, punctuation & neatness	____	____	____
Effort	____	____	____

OTHER COMMENTS:

Table 2

Criteria for APA Research Reports

Name _____ Date _____

Title _____

CONTENT OF PAPER (72 pts.)	
Adequacy of title (2)	_____
Abstract (5)	_____
Introduction	
Literature (amount, relevance) (5)	_____
Clear description of prior findings (5)	_____
Statement of current problem/hypothesis (5)	_____
Method	
Subjects (3)	_____
Materials/Apparatus (3)	_____
Description of procedure (5)	_____
Design considerations (counterbalancing, random assignment, etc.) (5)	_____
Results	
Appropriate analyses performed (3)	_____
Analyses clearly presented (3)	_____
Correct values (df, p, M, SD) (5)	_____
Correct conclusions drawn (5)	_____
Discussion	
Restatement of major findings (5)	_____
Relation to other literature (5)	_____
Discussion of flaws, problems (5)	_____
References - used where needed (3)	_____
APA STYLE (18 pts.)	
Double-spaced throughout (1)	_____
Pages numbered, short title on each (2)	_____
Proper format for headings (2)	_____
Title page format (2)	_____
Main body typed on continuous pages (1)	_____
Introduction headed by title (1)	_____
Reference list begins on new page (1)	_____
Reference list in alphabetical order (1)	_____
References in APA style in text (2)	_____
References are complete/accurate (3)	_____
Reference citations in correct APA style (2)	_____
OTHER (10 pts.)	
Statement of informed consent (1)	_____
Debriefing statement (2)	_____
Statistical printouts or equivalent (1)	_____
Originality of idea (1)	_____
Project difficulty level (2)	_____
Oral presentation (3)	_____

Table 3

Criteria for General Research Reports

Name _____

Title _____

Abstract (5) _____

Introduction (10) _____

- Background-
- Statement of problem-
- Statement of hypothesis-

Method (10) _____

- Subjects-
- Apparatus-
- Materials-
- Procedure-

Results (10) _____

- Appropriate analyses-
- Correct values-
- Correct conclusions-

Discussion (10) _____

- Restatement of findings-
- Relation to literature-
- Flaws, problems-

References (5) _____

- Used where needed-
- Quantity-
- APA style-

Table 4

Students' Responses about Grading Procedures

		Grading w/ Comments	Grading w/ Checksheet	
1.	greater amount of feedback	30.23 (13)	55.81 (24)	$p < .10$
2.	less variety of feedback	65.12 (28)	27.91 (12)	$p < .025$
3.	fairer evaluation	16.28 (7)	76.74 (33)	$p < .001$
4.	teacher more consistent	4.65 (2)	95.35 (41)	$p < .001$
5.	harder to understand grade rec'd	69.77 (30)	30.23 (12)	$p < .01$
6.	prefer teacher use	30.23 (13)	62.79 (27)	$p < .05$

Note. Percentages do not add to 100% because some of the 43 subjects said the two grading procedures were about the same or gave a "not sure" response so their data was not used in the chi-square. Frequencies are in parentheses.

THE USE OF STUDENT WORKBOOKS

IN

INTRODUCTORY PSYCHOLOGY COURSES

Donna Lis Reittinger, Ph.D.

&

Kathleen Crowley-Long, Ph.D.

The College of St. Rose

Albany, New York

Each year thousands of dollars are spent on the production, marketing, and purchase of student workbooks that accompany introductory psychology textbooks. Many instructors recommend that students use the workbooks under the assumption that such efforts will enhance achievement. There is, however, little or no literature available evaluating the effectiveness of this instructional strategy in a college population.

The purpose of the present study was to evaluate the extent and the effectiveness of the use of the student workbook that accompanies Dennis Coon's INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY: EXPLORATION AND APPLICATION, 5th edition. Casual observation over 21 combined years of teaching experience suggested that students who used the workbook effectively and consistently did better on multiple choice tests and quizzes than those who did not. This observation was further strengthened by the frequent comments of students who, having done poorly on the first unit test, started to use the workbook and noted an improvement in their grades. The present study was a systematic attempt to evaluate this casual observation.

The subjects for this study were 106 undergraduate students in four introductory psychology classes at the College of St. Rose in Albany, N.Y. during the fall 1990 semester. Two different instructors taught the four classes. Over 80% of the students in the classes were freshmen and sophomores. All classes were taught using the same course policies, outline, content, tests, and

quizzes. The three unit tests and five quizzes were in multiple choice format; all items were drawn from the item bank that accompanies the test. At the beginning of the semester, each instructor randomly assigned the workbook to one of her two sections; the remaining class was offered the option of using the workbook but was not required to do so.

All students required to use the workbook were told to bring their workbooks to class on the day of each unit test. While the test was in progress, each instructor and an aide estimated how much of the workbook assigned for that unit each student had completed. This was done primarily to increase compliance among students required to use the workbook. On the last day of the semester, students in all four sections filled out a questionnaire evaluating their use of the workbook. The questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

For the purposes of this analysis, students were divided into two groups based upon their responses to the questionnaire: those who did all or most of the workbook exercises and those who did little or none. These groups were combined across instructors since there appeared to be little difference between them based on instructor differences. The groups were also collapsed over the assigned vs. the unassigned conditions since several students in the classes that were offered the option of doing the workbook did it, while several students who were required to do the workbook did not. Students were included in the "assigned workbook" group if

they reported on the questionnaire that they had completed all or three quarters of the exercises or only the multiple choice sections of the exercises. Students were included in the "not assigned workbook" group if they reported on the questionnaire that they did not do the workbook at all, did only about a quarter of the exercises, did only the fill-in sections of the exercises, or did the exercises for only one of the three course units. This was done to maximize differences between these two groups. Although students who did none of the workbook were instructed not to complete the questionnaire, they did complete the demographic section of the survey. The final "assigned workbook" group was composed of 36 females and 15 males, while the final "not assigned workbook" group was composed of 8 females and 13 males.

Virtually all of the students in the classes who were assigned the workbook and, therefore, selected for the "assigned workbook" group reported purchasing the textbook and attempting at least some of the exercises. This is not surprising in view of the fact that students were told to bring their workbooks to class on the days of each unit exam. What is somewhat interesting is that over half of the students in the "not assigned workbook" group also purchased the workbook. However, slightly less than half of the group selected to participate as the "not assigned workbook" group reported attempting any of the exercises. Apparently assigning the workbook as required activity increases the probability that students will purchase and

attempt at least some of the exercises.

There were no differences in how students in the "workbook assigned" and "workbook not assigned" groups used the workbook. Slightly less than half of all student participants reported that they studied each workbook chapter after studying the textbook chapters. For about 10% of all students, doing the workbook was their primary studying activity. Another 10% of all students reported that they used the text and workbook simultaneously. Virtually all participating students reported that they checked the accuracy of their answers with the answer key.

All except 10 students reported that they found the workbook helpful. The multiple choice exercises were frequently cited as being the most helpful. Several students felt that the workbook could be improved by increasing the proportion of multiple choice items and reducing the proportion of fill-ins. Students' biggest complaints about the workbook centered around the fill-ins. They complained that these exercises parroted the text verbatim, were "too specific", required them to simply memorize material, and, therefore, did not contribute to their understanding.

One student who anticipated receiving an "A" in the course did not find the workbook reflective of college level work; but most of the students who commented claimed that the workbook provided them with a good review for the tests and helped them highlight material they would have otherwise ignored. According to one student, "It

made me think".

Over 90% of the students who **actually did** the workbook reported that they thought this activity improved their grades and every student who did the workbook reported that they would use the workbook again. However, about 70% of the students who did very little of the workbook felt that it did not improve their grades. Thirty percent of this group felt it would have improved their grades but this apparently was not sufficient to motivate them to do more of the workbook. Sixty percent of those who did not use the workbook said they would use the workbook if they ever again had the opportunity.

Inspecting the data more closely suggested that within the classes who were assigned the workbook, some students actually did the workbook and some did not. This was objectively verifiable since each instructor had estimated how much of the workbook each student had completed on the day of each unit exam. To assess the achievement levels of workbook users vs. non-users more specifically and more objectively, each instructor evaluated how much of the workbook exercises for the entire course each student had completed. The mean course grade of students who completed 70% or more of the workbook for the entire course was compared to that of students who had completed 30% or less of the exercises. This resulted in 38 students who actually completed the workbook and 9 students who did not. Analysis revealed no significant differences

between the two groups in terms of their final course average (t=.29, df=45, ns). This may have been due to the small number of students not completing the workbook, self-selection factors, or, most likely, to the greater variance among students in the workbook group.

All but four students in the study described themselves as "White, non-Hispanic". The responses of the four minority students did not differ from their non-minority counterparts. It is typical that the number of minority students at this college who take introductory psychology is small, although it has been increasing recently.

In conclusion, it would appear from this study that students who do the workbook exercises find them helpful and would use the workbook again, despite the lack of statistically significant achievement differences from their non-workbook using peers. In view of this, procedures designed to encourage students to comply with the workbook assignment seem in order.

Students report that they are more likely to do the workbook exercises if their tests/quizzes contain some of the workbook items. Improving the quality of the workbook by shortening the length of the exercises for each chapter and replacing some of the fill-ins with additional multiple choice items was also recommended. Giving students credit for completing all workbook exercises assigned has also been found to increase compliance, in our experience. Since a frequent complaint of students in this

study was that the workbook repeated the text almost verbatim, instructors using the Coon text might more productively use the "Mastery Study Guide" that also accompanies this text. This study guide is somewhat more conceptually oriented, more abstract, and more individualized. Thus, students might find the Mastery Guide more appealing. Future research in this area might evaluate the usefulness of more conceptual study guides compared to the more concrete type of guide evaluated in this study. Additionally, procedures designed to secure more representative samples would also be in order to help test for any aptitude-treatment interactions.

Right now, it is probably safe to say that study guides improve the performance of at least some students, depending on the initial skills of the learner and the quality of the guide. Therefore, it makes sense, at the very least, to recommend the use of study guides to your students and perhaps to require them if you sense that you have an especially reluctant or underprepared group of students.

APPENDIX A

WORKBOOK SURVEY

Directions: Read each of the following statements and circle the response that **best** describes your attitudes and behaviors. Your response in no way will influence your final grade in this course.

1. Did you purchase the student workbook that accompanies the text for this course?
   a) Yes
   b) No

2. If your answer to the above question is "no", you need not complete the rest of this survey. If you answered "yes", did you attempt any of the exercizes in the workbook?
   a) Yes
   b) No

3. If you attempted the exercizes in the workbook, how much did you do? Circle all that apply.
   a) all the exercizes corresponding to the required chapters from the text
   b) about three quarters of the exercizes corresponding to the required chapters from the text
   c) about half of the exercizes
   d) about a quarter of the exercizes
   e) only the fill-in sections of the exercizes
   f) only the multiple choice sections of the exercizes
   g) only the exercizes for Unit I
   h) only the exercizes for Unit II
   i) only the exercizes for Unit III

4) Which of the following best describes how you used the workbook? Circle all that apply.
   a) studied each textbook chapter, then did the workbook
   b) did each workbook chapter, then studied the text
   c) used the workbook as my primary studying activity
   d) just filled in the workbook exercizes by looking at the answer key at the end of the chapter
   e) read all the text chapters for the unit, then did the workbook exercizes
   f) other: _____.

5) Did you check the accuracy of your answers?
   a) Yes
   b) No

6) Did you find the workbook helpful?
   a) Yes
   b) No

   Explain:

7) How would you rate the effectivenss of your study habits before using the workbook?
   a) Ineffective
   b) Poor
   c) Average
   d) Good
   e) Excellent

8) Do you think that doing the workbook improved your grades?
   a) Yes
   b) No

9) How would you change the workbook to make it more helpful?

   Explain:

10) Given the opportunity, would you choose to use the workbook again?
   a) Yes
   b) No

11) Please indicate your year in college: Fr So Jr Sr

12) What is your date of birth?

13) What grade do you expect to get in this course?

14. Are you: a) female
   b) male

15. Ethnicity/Race. Which of the following describes you best?

   a) African-American
   b) Asain-American
   c) Hispanic/Latin American
   d) Native American
   e) White, non-hispanic
   f) Other (please specify): _____.

Curriculum Integration and Cross-Cultural Psychology

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Curriculum Integration and Cross-Cultural Psychology

Over the past decade teachers of undergraduate psychology have begun, along with colleagues in other disciplines, to revise their curricula in order to more effectively address issues of diversity. Among individuals involved in the curriculum integration of psychology courses the assumption is often made that the cross-cultural psychology course is the area in least need of revision. After all, the focus of cross-cultural psychology is the comparison of psychological phenomena across cultures. Furthermore, issues of cultural sensitivity are inherent in the methodology; a methodology that strives for cross-cultural equivalence in the functions of phenomena studied, instrumentation and procedures used, and interpretation of data. The field of cross-cultural psychology, however, is not immune from the Eurocentric and androcentric biases that have shaped psychology as a whole. Little attention has been given to the teaching of cross-cultural psychology and we have not addressed inclusiveness as a pedagogical concern. This paper explores the need for curriculum integration in the cross-cultural psychology course and discusses how cross-cultural research and methodology may be useful in the curriculum integration of psychology courses in general.

Issues of bias in cross-cultural psychology have become increasingly relevant to all of us regardless of whether or not we teach a cross-cultural psychology course. Many psychologists are turning to the cross-cultural literature as a curriculum integration resource (as suggested by Tourney-Purta, 1984 and by Triandis & Brislin, 1984, among others). Those who have not personally chosen to include a cross-cultural dimension in their courses are increasingly likely to find such issues addressed in their textbooks. Many of this year's introductory psychology texts, for example, have been advertised as including a significant cross-cultural or diversity component.

What is the nature of these biases in cross-cultural psychology and where are the opportunities for revision or transformation? Despite emphasis on being sensitive to cultural diversity we are insensitive on other dimensions. Cross-cultural research on women is often marginalized in terms of exclusion from key cross-cultural publications and journals. Studies of males are frequently generalized to reflect the characteristics of an entire culture. Cross-cultural research on gender and relationships is often based on an assumption of heterosexuality and the use of dichotomous gender categories. Issues of disability, if discussed at all, may be classified with the topic of abnormality.

There are a number of dimensions on which curriculum integration may be addressed. The following discussion of curriculum integration will focus on marginalization as a product of language usage, boundaries that determine the inclusion of, and value assigned to, content areas, as well as pedagogy, and placement of diversity-related materials within the curriculum.

Although cross-cultural psychology includes a significant number of studies on the interaction between language and thought, we have been careless about our own use of terms that foster ethnocentrism or marginalization. Segall (1990) points out the ethnocentric nature of terms used to describe changes in social and political environments, such as Westernization, civilization, modernization, and detribalization. We may unknowingly set implicit standards of comparison with the use of such seemingly trivial terms as huts as opposed to houses. If these represent functional equivalents then the use of different terms may serve only an evaluative purpose. As cross-cultural psychologists we frequently refer to a Western/Nonwestern dichotomy, which reinforces the view that anything Western is central, and thus the standard of comparison, and everything else is less significant.

The terms we use in cross-cultural comparisons also fail to acknowledge the

diversity within populations studied. Research on "Western values" or "American behavior," for example, is often based on data collected from white, middle class, male participants. A study of the values of Americans of Chinese ancestry would be clearly labeled as such. A study of the values of Americans of European ancestry should be equally specified rather than labeled as a study of "American values." Perhaps as cross-cultural researchers we need to broaden the definition of cross-cultural research. What has been traditionally termed subcultural differences may be equally or more significant than cultural differences tied to nationality. The invisibility of Americans of color in the cross-cultural literature has a major impact on classroom process. With the absence of cross-cultural research methodology applied to studies of culturally diverse groups within North America, students of color may only see people of similar ancestry in discussions of less technically developed societies, often in conjunction with cognitive abilities testing. Such structural biases in the cross-cultural literature may best be made explicit and the object of class discussion. In my own cross-cultural psychology class a number of students of color expressed the view that they did not feel included in descriptions of "American self-disclosure patterns" in the cross-cultural literature. Through discussion of these cultural differences in level of self-disclosure among U.S. populations we were able to hypothesize a series of variables related to the phenomenon of self-disclosure. The exploration of ethnocentrism and marginalization must extend beyond the classroom, however, to our own speech and writing, discussions with colleagues, feedback to textbook publishers, and comments in journal article reviews.

Ironically, even through our attempts at reducing ethnocentrism we may overlook aspects of diversity; specifically diversity associated with differential access to power. In an effort to avoid cultural bias, cross-

cultural psychologists, anthropologists and others studying cultural variability have endeavored to produce research which describes rather than evaluates cultural differences. Students may emerge from a cross-cultural psychology course anxious to embrace ideas of cultural relativity and striving for a nonjudgemental perspective. Such an approach is critical, yet it may lead some to overlook manifestations of oppression. As teachers of psychology we need to separate the goals of cultural sensitivity and cultural relativity from the acceptance or sanctioning of existing power structures.

An additional concern of curriculum integration involves the investigation of content areas within an academic discipline. What is the source of these content areas and why are they differentially valued? A useful concept for exploring the extent to which course content is culture-bound is the emic-etic distinction. Pike (1954) first used the words "emic" and "etic" to describe approaches to the study of language and culture. The term emic is derived from phonemics (sounds specific to a particular language) and is used to describe culture-specific phenomena. The term etic is derived from phonetics (universal speech sounds) and is used to describe phenomena that are universal across cultures. In cross-cultural psychology, and psychology in general, we often find emic concepts imposed as if they are etic. Need for achievement, for example, has been studied widely across cultures, yet seems unlikely to be a universally salient dimension of motivation. The emic-etic distinction may be a useful concept for exploring ethnocentrism in course content across the psychology curriculum. I have found it useful and enlightening to teach this concept to students in a variety of courses in an effort to work toward cooperative exploration of the differential value assigned to content areas within the psychology curriculum.

In order to fully address issues of diversity in the content of psychology

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courses we may need to reconceptualize our criteria for what constitutes psychology and who qualifies as a psychologist. Although we may define psychology broadly as the investigation of behavior and mental processes and psychologists as individuals who study such phenomena, in actuality we limit psychology to material published in psychology journals, primarily English language journals from North America and Europe. As Enriquez (1979) points out, other psychologies exist, but are marginalized. While we rarely refer to "Western psychology," Asian psychology is always designated as such, "Asian." In addition, we limit the category "psychologists" to people with academic degrees in psychology. Enriquez states that this definition of "psychologist" excludes the work of individuals with degrees in other disciplines and "...the unwritten but no less real psychologies of peoples who may not even have a tradition of publishing journal articles in psychology to speak of (p.10)." Although academic training in psychology is increasingly accessible in many parts of the world, one might ask to what degree is acculturation a part of this educational process. By taking a cultural equivalence perspective in defining psychology and psychologists we may expand our knowledge of the diversity of human behavior.

A major goal of curriculum integration is a more inclusive pedagogy. Addressing issues of diversity involves fostering a classroom atmosphere in which all students feel safe and no student feels excluded. Across the curriculum, whether or not students feel welcome depends not only on teaching style, but on such factors as the nature of readings and examples used, the costs of books and materials, and the safety of class times and location. In courses dealing with issues of diversity a further concern is with the likelihood of stereotyping. Bronstein and Quina (1988) state that the risk of creating stereotypes is particularly high when people are labeled based on a single dimension and placed

in opposition to other labeled groups for the purpose of comparison. This is precisely the format in which cross-cultural findings are typically presented. Faculty striving to develop more inclusive courses may find themselves dealing with a greater volume of racist, sexist, heterosexist, and classist remarks in classroom. Part of the challenge of addressing diversity in our classes is to respect students' experience and expertise yet avoid setting students up as representatives of a single group. This tendency to stereotype may be diminished through an emphasis on within group diversity. In addition it is often useful to discuss the mechanics of stereotyping and make explicit the cognitive aspects of the stereotyping process. This allows for the separation of stereotyping from prejudice and enables students to point out stereotypic comments without making personal attacks.

Within the cross-cultural literature there are a number of concepts and findings which may inform our teaching and lead us toward a pedagogical style which is more sensitive to issues of diversity. Diverse participation and learning styles may be a topic area within the cross-cultural psychology course (e.g. Cushner, 1990), but should also be a consideration for the teaching process. Are students graded on participation and if so, how is participation assessed? Does one need to be aggressive or interrupt the instructor or other students in order to participate in a discussion? Are there opportunities to participate in less verbal ways? In regard to learning styles, cross-cultural psychology has compared traditional ("informal") education with school based ("formal") teaching. Informal education has been characterized as involving more cooperative learning environments, issues that are closely tied to life experiences, multiple individuals serving as teacher, and learning that extends beyond specific hours or a specific physical setting (Scribner & Cole, 1973). Many of these characteristics of traditional education correspond to what is

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currently being discussed as ways to empower students through humanistic pedagogy, activist pedagogy, and feminist pedagogy. The integration of such techniques into the undergraduate psychology classroom may be particularly useful for students who are not being well served by the formal educational system.

An additional area of the cross-cultural literature which may relate to pedagogy is the recent research on culture shock. We know from the work of Bochner (1986), for example, that the experience of coping with unfamiliar cultures may be best conceptualized not as an adjustment process, in which poor adjustment is a function of personal deficiencies, but as a learning process, in which problems are remedied by learning the necessary skills for operating in that culture. For many college students, the campus and classroom environments represent unfamiliar cultures. Do we attribute difficulties in this setting to personal deficiencies or is this a matter of culture learning? Our answer to this question may determine the degree to which we take on the role of cross-cultural trainer in the classroom. What do we explain in our classes and what do we assume that everyone knows? It may be useful to reconsider our assumptions about the familiarity of our students with aspects of the campus or classroom culture, such as how to read a syllabus or expectations for a term paper. This focus on "cross-cultural training" of students, however, does not preclude the necessity of institutional change toward greater inclusivity.

Finally, curriculum integration must address the placement of cross-cultural material, in the broader context. Treating diversity at the periphery reinforces notion that diversity is not central to an understanding of human behavior. The position of the cross-cultural psychology course, and other courses addressing issues of diversity, within department offerings sends an important message to faculty and students. For these courses, such factors as whether they are designated as requirements as opposed to electives, assigned a regular course

number, included in the course catalogue, and offered regularly each contribute to institutional legitimacy and work against marginalization of diverse perspectives. Ideally the cross-cultural course would not be offered in isolation, but as a complement to a fully transformed curriculum.

Similar issues of marginalization relate to the placement of cross-cultural material across the psychology curriculum. Whether information on issues of diversity appears in primary texts as opposed to supplementary materials, is covered by exam questions, and is a part of class discussions and key assignments will influence the message conveyed about the importance of diverse perspectives. We must also carefully attend to issues of marginalization in the growing volume of cross-cultural material included in psychology texts. Although it is laudable that such material is appearing in these texts, the content and presentation reflect what has been described as the initial stages of curriculum integration (McIntosh, 1985) in that it generally functions as providing a contrast with "the exotic other" rather than encouraging students to question universality of Western psychological thought.

The tools of the cross-cultural psychologist may be the most important instrument we have for the curriculum integration of psychology courses and the transformation of the discipline. Cross-cultural methods potentially enable us to examine the cultural biases and ethnocentric assumptions across the psychology curriculum. We must first turn, however, to an examination of those biases and assumptions inherent in the structure of cross-cultural psychology itself. We must extend our knowledge of diversity beyond traditional definitions of culture and draw on this information as we strive toward a more effective and inclusive pedagogy.

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Student Outcomes and Evaluation of an Undergraduate Course on "Ethical Issues in Psychological Research and Practice"

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A national consensus is emerging that ethics education, once an almost universal requirement in American higher education, should be reintroduced. There is controversy, especially in public higher education, as to how to teach basic ethical principles without the dangers associated with indoctrination into a particular moral or religious system (Hastings Center, 1980) . Psychology has, as do many professions, a systematized ethical code, the APA Ethical Principles (1981, 1990) that regulate professional practice and research. Teaching these Principles can accomplish many of the goals of ethics education while avoiding most such controversy because they do not owe their origin to a specific religious or moral system. They do, however, convey many broadly accepted ethical precepts (e.g. responsibility, competence, etc.) as well as particular ethical tenets of the profession.

Until recently, however, scant attention has been directed to systematic teaching of the APA Ethical Principles to undergraduate (and even graduate) majors. Psychology texts' coverage of professional ethics, when included at all, is brief and limited to research ethics while the other principles are largely ignored. For example, Perrotto and Culkin examined the presence and extent of coverage of ethics in 23 introductory psychology texts that had been published between 1983 and 1989. While eighteen books (76.26%) provided some coverage of ethics in the text, they notes that most focused on research ethics only, ignoring other areas of professional ethics
(Perrotto and Culkin, 1989 as cited in Matthews, 1991, pp. 80-81). There are no available data, beyond the limited information on textbook coverage, on the extent to which professional and research ethics are covered in the typical undergraduate curriculum. Yet, the increasing calls in the literature for such coverage suggest that little beyond the regular, but usually superficial, coverage of research ethics in methodology courses is presently built into the typical undergraduate curriculum (cf. Matthews, 1991; Haemmerlie and Matthews, 1988; McGovern, 1988). Indeed, Fine and Ulrich (1988) present rather discouraging data on the extent to which graduate students are provided distinct courses in ethics in their masters or doctoral studies.

I have been personally interested in ethics for several years and have participated in an ad hoc group dubbed the Ethics Forum for five years. Our goals have included both personal growth and knowledge but have focused on encouraging increased coverage of ethical concerns in our college curriculum. One product of my concern has occurred in the form of an experimental course titled "Ethical Issues in Psychological Research and Practice" which has been offered in the Fall, 1990, Fall, 1991 and Spring, 1992. I would like to summarize the characteristics of this course, review student reaction and performance outcomes, and briefly discuss the prospects and problems in offering such a course as part of our ongoing curriculum.

The course has been offered as an option among our topical senior seminars. All majors are required to complete a senior seminar after completing a statistics and methods sequence. The senior seminar is designed to provide students a specialized graduate seminar style experience in a particular area.

We have offered this course because experience with earlier efforts to strengthen coverage of professional ethics in our existing courses revealed that careful textbook

selection and the use of selected support materials (class exercises, a video we produced, outside readings) improved the coverage of research ethics. We could not, however, formally address the other principles because of the limits imposed by an already full content and the fact that most of our courses are non-clinical and concentrate on theory and research issues rather than applications and professional practices.

The course goals were to: (1) address all the APA Ethical Principles, (2) use a critical discussion format within a casebook approach to examine significant ethical issues that confront psychologists in their professional practice and research, (3) examine the history of the Principles and relationships to societal and personal ethics, (4) review relevant research on ethical practices in psychology.

The first third of the course centered in discussions, with weekly quizzes (Appendices) on the texts, Ethical Principles in the Conduct of Research with Human Participants (1982) and Casebook on Ethical Principles of Psychologists (1987). Outside readings and selected guest speakers are used to increase interest and introduce first person experiences dealing with ethical concerns in counseling, testing, and research. During the latter two-thirds of the course, students present(ed) (35-40 minutes) on individual topics that either expanded coverage of issues or introduced new issues/research (Appendices). Presentations culminated a process in which students had earlier selected topics and worked closely with the instructor in gathering, organizing, and interpreting material. Each student also submitted a 3-9 page outline a week before their presentation which provided the class with necessary background and included required readings. The last three weeks of the course were spent in identifying, developing, sharing, and getting reactions to final individual student research proposals, projects, or literature reviews (on topics other than that covered in their presentation). Copies of these final papers/projects were distributed to all students.

We have attempted to assess student reaction via a course evaluation questionnaire that included both structured questions and a final open ended question ("Please comment on any segment of the course you feel important, positively and/or negatively"). Table 1 summarizes the questionnaires results for both the Fall, 1990 and Fall, 1991 seminar sections (total n=20). These data indicate that the course was very positively received. While seminars are usually rated highly because students appreciate the individualized attention and positive group dynamics that characterize the class, these data are move positive than is typical, at least in the some two dozen seminar sections I have taught over the years.

The open-ended comments were also positive with students citing the importance of learning and applying the Principles. Further, 16 of the 20 students felt that a regular, upper level course should be offered on this topic. Two of the dissenting four said they would like to see such a course but doubted that it could be effective unless it was done as a small enrollment seminar.

I have attempted to examine student performance as an index of the extent to which the course objectives were met. While I had originally hoped to do a content analysis of the various written protocols generated by students (quizzes, presentation outlines and final paper/proposal/project), this proved to be impractical because of the small number of

students and the volume of material generated. Nevertheless, I believe that students provided ample evidence that they were able, by the end of the course, to: (1) cite the content and rationales of the Principles; (2) apply appropriate principles to specific cases and defend that application (as reflected in quizzes, presentation outlines, final paper/proposal/project); and (3) understand both the importance and complexities of the Principles and what an "ethical dilemma" is (quizzes, presentation outlines, final paper/proposal/project). In addition, it appeared that students also developed the specific content, analytic and presentation skills which are characteristic of a good senior seminar experience.

I have been working on development of a regular course on "Ethical Issues in Psychological Research and Practice". However, my experience with the seminar topic has led me to develop a proposal which is likely to be offered as a limited enrollment (25 or fewer) upper level course (400 level that requires 12 previous hours of psychology). It would follow much the same format as the seminar with a heavy focus on quizzes, discussion and a final paper/proposal/project. It would, however, include more lecture and lose one of the more important features of the seminar course, student presentations (with accompanying outline) as one could not handle even 25 students if the presentation is included.

Matthews (1991) and others have discussed approaches and associated problems in teaching the Principles. Matthews notes that a separate undergraduate course has the advantage of allowing one to cover all the Principles and cover them in depth but has the disadvantage of small class size due to a lack of student interest, meaning that only a small percentage of majors will receive instruction in all the principles. I agree that class size would have to be kept relatively small so that one could insure that students do not fall victim to another problem associated with such a course, feeling of confusion or being overwhelmed by the complexity of the issues covered (Matthews, 1991).

My experience has been that students can handle the material as long as the instructor works closely with each student, requiring a limited class size, even if class presentations are dropped as a requirement. I believe, based upon the responses of my students, that there would be sufficient student interest to offer such a course at least once a year. It will not, however, expose all, or even a majority of students, to the Principles.

I have not found a way to resolve the dilemma I feel over the need to expose all undergraduate psychology majors to the Ethical Principles. Obvious problems (confusion, lack of understanding, lack of time, inability of students to see their relevance to a particular content area) occur when one tries to cover the Principles in a separate lecture-only course or to incorporate them into existing courses. My only proposed solution, so far, is to propose an upper level course (with its attendant problem of exposing only a small percentage of seniors to the Principles) and to encourage colleagues to cover at least some of the Principles in particular content courses (e.g. Research Methods, Tests and Measurements, Psychotherapies, etc.). I welcome further suggestions for resolving this problem.

TABLE 1
Course Evaluation Data
(Combined Data for Fall 1990 and Fall 1991, total n=20)

Question	% Response by Category					Mean Score
	1 = excellent	2 = good	3 = average	4 = poor	5 = very bad	
1. Course in general	60%	40%				1.40
2. Professor's teaching effectiveness	65%	35%				1.35
3. Overall evaluation of professor	50%	40%	10%			1.60
4. Professor presented ideas and concepts clearly	40%	55%	5%			1.65
5. Professor listened to and responded to students' questions during class	65%	30%	5%			1.40
6. I gained a broad understanding of the issues and relevant research in this area of psychology as a result of this course	70%	30%				1.30
7. Would you like to take another course from this professor	definitely yes 35%	probably yes 35%	possibly 25%	probably not 5%	definitely not	2.00
8. Clarity with which objectives and requirements of the course were stated at the beginning and carried through	excellent 50%	good 40%	fair 5%	poor 5%	very bad	1.65
9. Amount of work required for credit received	far too much work required 5%	somewhat too much work 25%	right amount required 70%	somewhat too little	far too little required	2.65
10. Difficulty of assigned reading	far too difficult or advanced	somewhat too difficult . . . 5%	proper level of difficulty 90%	somewhat easy or elem. 5%	far too easy or elementary	3.00
11. Rate the contribution of the assigned reading to the course as a whole	excellent contribution 80%	good contribution 20%	fair contribution	poor or minimal . . .	detracted rather than contributed	1.20
12. Tests were a fair, reasonable measure of my knowledge	excellent 30%	good 70%	average	poor	very bad	1.70
13. Fairness wtih which grades are assigned	excellent 25%	good 65%	average 10%	poor	very bad	1.84

Using Active Learning to Teach Critical Thinking

By Dr. James Bell
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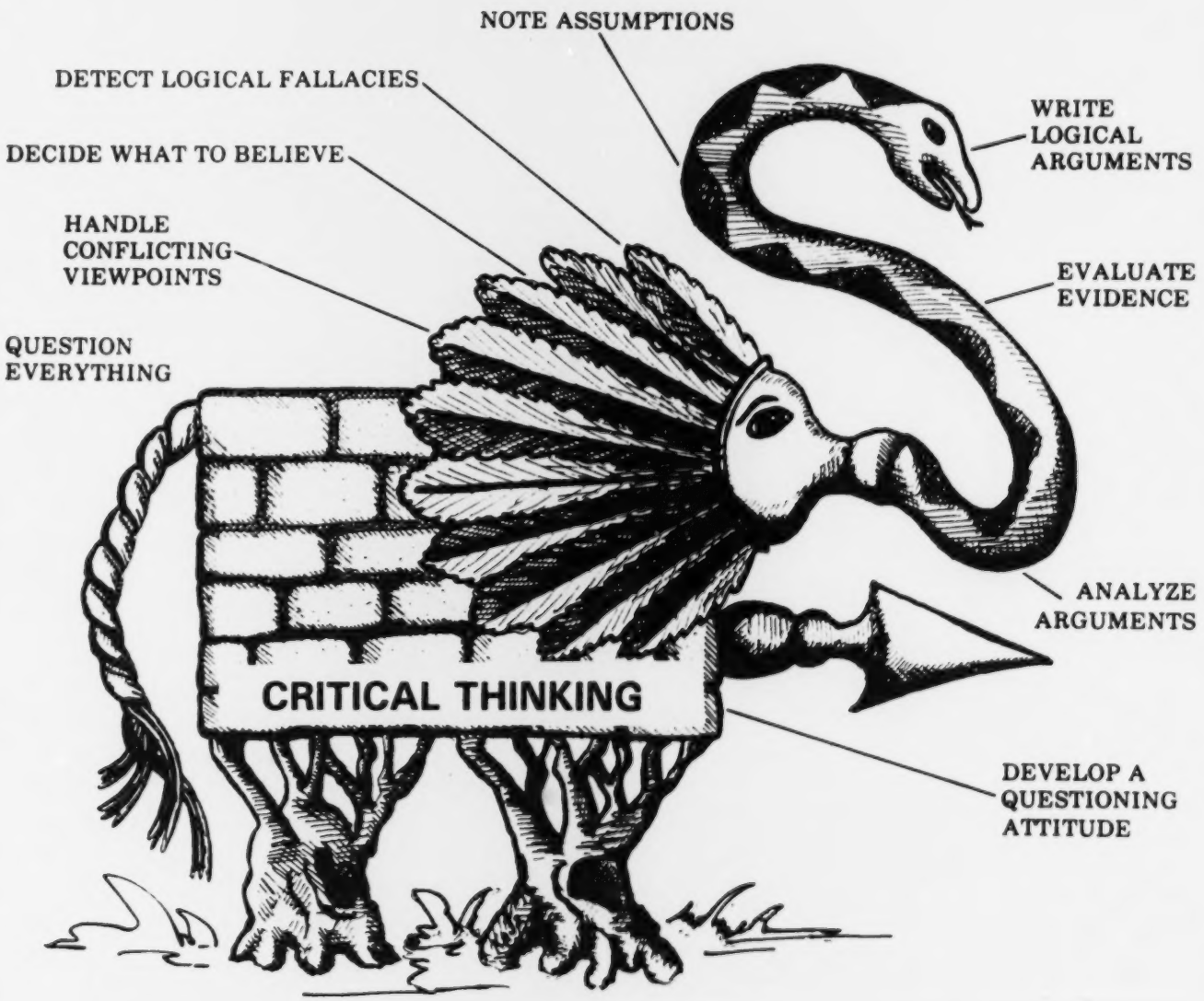

PRESENTED TO THE
6th Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology
at Nevele Hotel, Ellenville, New York
March 18, 19, 20, 1992

TEACHING THINKING SKILLS IN PSYCHOLOGY

In the June 1991 issue of the American Psychologist McGovern et al. in their article "Liberal Education, Study in Depth, and the Arts and Sciences Major -- Psychology" produced a report on undergraduate education in psychology. Eight common goals for the psychology curriculum were identified. The first goal was labeled knowledge base. The second was labeled thinking skills. Here is what they said about thinking skills.

> Advanced work in the discipline requires skills in learning, critical thinking, and reasoning -- skills that come in part from working with quantitative information in statistics or experimental methods courses and from critical thinking of original texts in all courses. Psychology students also need to gain familiarity with qualitative methods and to develop a disciplined curiosity about human behavior and experience. Even at the introductory level, students should be able to inquire about behavioral antecedents and consequences and to view with amiable skepticism the explanations and conclusions in popular media reports on psychology and other social sciences. As they advance, psychology students should learn to think critically about themselves, including their difference and their similarities with others; to evaluate their attitudes about people who are different from themselves; and to know how gender, race, ethnicity, culture and class affect all human perspectives and experiences." (p. 601) [Emphasis added.]
>
> "A National Institute of Education (1984) report, Involvement in Learning: Realizing the Potential of American Higher Education, recommended three critical conditions of excellence in the learning process: student involvement, clear and high expectations, and regular and periodic assessment and feedback." (p. 604)

The authors of this report recommend teaching introductory psychology students to critical evaluate secondary sources, using active learning, providing clear and high expectations, and providing systematic feedback to students on their learning.

I. Defining Creative Problem Solving and Critical Thinking

A. A Problem

A problem exists when there is a gap between the present situation and a desired situation.
"Something requiring thought and skill to arrive at a proper conclusion or decision....
syn issue, nut, question
rel enigma, mystery, puzzle, bugaboo..." (Webster's Collegiate Thesaurus, 1976, p. 629)

B. Routine Problem Solving

Routine problem solving occurs when we already have the answer to bridging the gap or the correct answer is immediately obvious.

C. Creative Problem Solving

Creative problem solving is needed when there is not an obvious way to bridge the gap. The resulting solution could be seen as novel. Designing an experiment to test a new hypothesis would be an example of creative problem solving.

D. Critical Thinking

Critical Thinking involves evaluating the evidence and reasoning in a communication to decide what to believe and do.

1. Evaluating secondary sources. In General Psychology students can be taught to evaluate secondary sources.

2. Evaluating primary sources. In upper level courses students can be taught to evaluate primary sources.

E. There is overlap between creative problem solving and critical thinking. Both are higher order thinking skills.

1. In creative problem solving, critical thinking is needed when deciding which proposed solution is best. Criteria are used to select a solution.

2. In deciding what to do after having critically evaluated information (What does research tell me about lecturing versus using small groups?), the individual may need to do some problem solving (In what ways can I produce effective group discussion with my students?).

II. Comparing Creative Problem Solving and Critical Thinking

Creative Problem Solving	Critical Thinking
STEP 1 - Search For Challenges.	STEP 1 - Identify the Source
STEP 2 - Express The Problem.	STEP 2 - Summarize the message
STEP 3 - Investigate The Problem.	STEP 3 - Analyze the definitions
STEP 4 - Produce Ideas.	STEP 4 - Identify the evidence
STEP 5 - Put Into Action The Best Solution.	STEP 5 - Evaluate the evidence
STEP 6 - Evaluate The Effectiveness of the Solution.	STEP 6 - Evaluate the reasoning

III. A Five Step Creative Problem Solving Process

STEP 1 - Search For Challenges.
I have a problem (a challenge, a goal, a need).
a gap, between what I want and the present,
the gap is worth thinking on

STEP 2 - Express The Problem.
I want to get clear on the nature of the gap (I need to refine the problem statement).

A. Think again on what I want to do.
   1. Read, reread, think, rethink.
   2. Write down specifically my goals.
   3. Consider criteria for a good solution.

B. Think again on what are the givens (the situation now)
   1. Review what I know and look carefully at givens
   2. Look at what and who is involved
   3. Make a diagram to represent the problem
   4. Break down the problem

C. Think about the type of problem
   one answer, several answers, creative

STEP 3 - Investigate The Problem.
Start work on solving the problem.
What information and resources do I need to work on this problem?

STEP 4 - Produce Ideas.

A. Use your creativity.

B. Brainstorm.
   1. Withhold judgment
   2. Produce many ideas
   3. Build on previous ideas
   4. Try for the far out

C. Talk to others to get ideas.

STEP 5 - Put Into Action The Best Solution.

A. Evaluate the ideas to select the best solution.

B. Refine the solution.

C. Anticipate negative reactions to the solution.

STEP 6 - Evaluate the Effectiveness of the Solution.

IV. How do textbook authors define critical thinking ?

My sample for sections A. B. and C. are 1990, 1991, and 1992 general psychology textbooks sent to Howard Community College.

A. Critical thinking is not listed in the glossary or index

Bernstein, Douglas et al. (1991). Psychology.
Buskist, William and Gerbing, David. (1990). Psychology.
Carlson, Neil. (1990). Psychology.
Gleitman, Henry. (1992). Basic psychology.
Huffman, Karen et al. (1991). Psychology in action.
In the Prologue there is a section on critical thinking with this definition: "thinking about our thinking so that we can clarify and improve it."
Kalat, James. (1990). Introduction to psychology.
McConnell, James and Philipchalk, Ronald. (1992). Understanding human behavior.
Morris, Charles. (1990). Psychology.
Myers, David. (1991). Psychology.
Peterson, Christopher. (1991). Introduction to psychology.
Rathus, Spencer. (1990). Psychology.
Weiten, Wayne. (1992). Psychology.

B. Critical thinking is not in the glossary but is in the index.

Bootzin, Richard et al. (1991). Psychology today. pp. 21, 336.
"By critically evaluating research, we are able to determine whether information is useful, relevant, and factual." p. 27
Feldman, Robert. (1990). Understanding psychology. pp. 244-247.
a heading: "Learning to Think Critically: Teaching People Problem-solving Skills." (p. 244)
Lefton, Lester. (1991). Psychology. pp. 27-29.
"Critical thinking means evaluating evidence, shifting through choices, assessing outcomes, and deciding if conclusions make sense....A key to thinking critically about research is to be evaluative, to question all aspects of the study." (pp. 27, 29)
Zimbardo, Philip. (1992). Psychology and life. pp. 28. 50-52.
"Becoming a wise research consumer involves learning how to think critically and knowing how to evaluate claims about what research shows." (p. 52)

C. Critical thinking is found in both the glossary and index.
Baron, Robert. (1992). Psychology.
Critical Thinking - "Careful assessment of available evidence in order to evaluate claims and statements in an objective and well-reasoned manner." (p. G3) index - pp. 3, 27, 34, 35, 37.
Wade, Carole and Tavris, Carol. (1990). Psychology.
Critical thinking - "the ability and willingness to assess claims and make objective judgments on the basis of well-supported reasons." (p. G-3) index - pp. 31-35, 40-41.

D. Books which focus on critical thinking in psychology

Bell, James. (1991). Evaluating psychological information: Sharpening your critical thinking skills.
"Critical thinking is deciding what to believe and how to act after a careful evaluation of the evidence and reasoning in a communication." (p. 1)

Halpern, Diane. (1989). Thought and knowledge: An introduction to critical thinking.
"Critical thinking: Thinking that is purposeful, reasonable, and goal directed. Also known as directed thinking. Compare with nondirected thinking." (p. 38)

Meyer, Richard and Goodchild, Fiona. (1990). The critical thinker: Thinking and learning strategies for psychology students.
"We define critical thinking as an active and systematic attempt to understand and evaluate arguments." (p. 4)

Stanovich, K. (1992). How to think straight about psychology (3rd ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.
There is no entry for critical thinking in the index.
""The general public is unsure about what is and is not psychology and is unable to evaluate independently claims about human behavior....Psychology, probably more than any other science, requires critical thinking skills that enable students to separate the wheat from the chaff that accumulates around all sciences. These are the critical thinking skills that students will need to become independent evaluators of psychological information. Years after students have forgotten the content of an introductory psychology course, they will still use the fundamental principles covered in this book to evaluate psychological claims." From the Preface (p. xii)

Wade, Carole and Tavris, Carol. (1990). Learning to think critically: The case of close relationships: A handbook to accompany Psychology.
"The process of examining information and reaching a judgment or decision is at the heart of critical thinking." (p. 1)

Zechmeister, Eugene and Johnson, James. (1992). Critical thinking: A functional approach.
"Good thinking, or what we will term critical thinking, is, as one observer wryly comments, different from the kind of thinking that most of us habitually do..." (p. 4)

E. Educational Psychology Textbooks

Kaplan, Paul. (1990). Educational psychology for tomorrow's teachers.
"Critical thinking. Thinking that involves analyzing and focusing on what to believe or do in a particular

situation." (p. 111)

Slavin, Robert. (1991). Educational psychology.
"One key objective of schooling is enhancing students' abilities to think critically, to make rational decisions about what to do or what to believe....the goal of teaching critical thinking is to create a critical spirit, which encourages students to question what they hear and to examine their own thinking for logical inconsistencies or fallacies..." (p. 191)

F. Books For Teachers Who Will Be Teaching Thinking Skills

Beyer, Barry. (1987). Practical strategies for the teaching of thinking.
"The term critical thinking is one of the most abused terms in our thinking vocabulary. Generally it means whatever its users stipulate it to mean. In some circles critical thinking is used to mean all thinking operations....Experts in the field of critical thinking have for some years been rather specific about what they mean by the term. Critical thinking, according to them and as used here, means judging the authenticity, worth, or accuracy of something." (pp. 32-33)

Marzano, Robert et al. (1988). Dimensions of thinking: A framework for curriculum and instruction.
"Critical thinking is sometimes defined narrowly (`assessing the accuracy of statements') and sometimes more globally. Ennis (1985), who at one time preferred the narrower meaning, now defines critical thinking as `reasonable reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do.' (p. 54)....The goal of teaching critical thinking is to develop people who are fair-minded, objective, and committed to clarity and accuracy.," (p. 18)

Ruggiero, Vincent. (1988). Teaching thinking across the curriculum.
"Creative thinking produces ideas. Critical thinking evaluates those ideas, as well as the ideas we encounter in such activities as reading and listening, testing them for usefulness and/or soundness, and refining them as necessary." (p. 28)

Swartz, Robert and Perkins, David. (1990). Teaching thinking: Issues and approaches.
"We interpret critical thinking to concern the critical examination and evaluation --actual and potential--of beliefs and courses of action....in critical thinking we
aim at critical judgment about what to accept as reasonable and/or to do
use standards that themselves are the results of critical reflection in making these judgments:

employ various organized strategies of reasoning and arguments in determining and applying these standards; and

seek and gather reliable information to use as evidence or reasons in supporting these judgments.

The term `critical thinking' is sometimes interpreted in a broader sense than this. Critical thinking has become a banner word for many educators: `We need to teach critical thinking in the schools.' Given its popularity, many educators and scholars prefer to include in critical thinking all good thinking...(p. 37-38)

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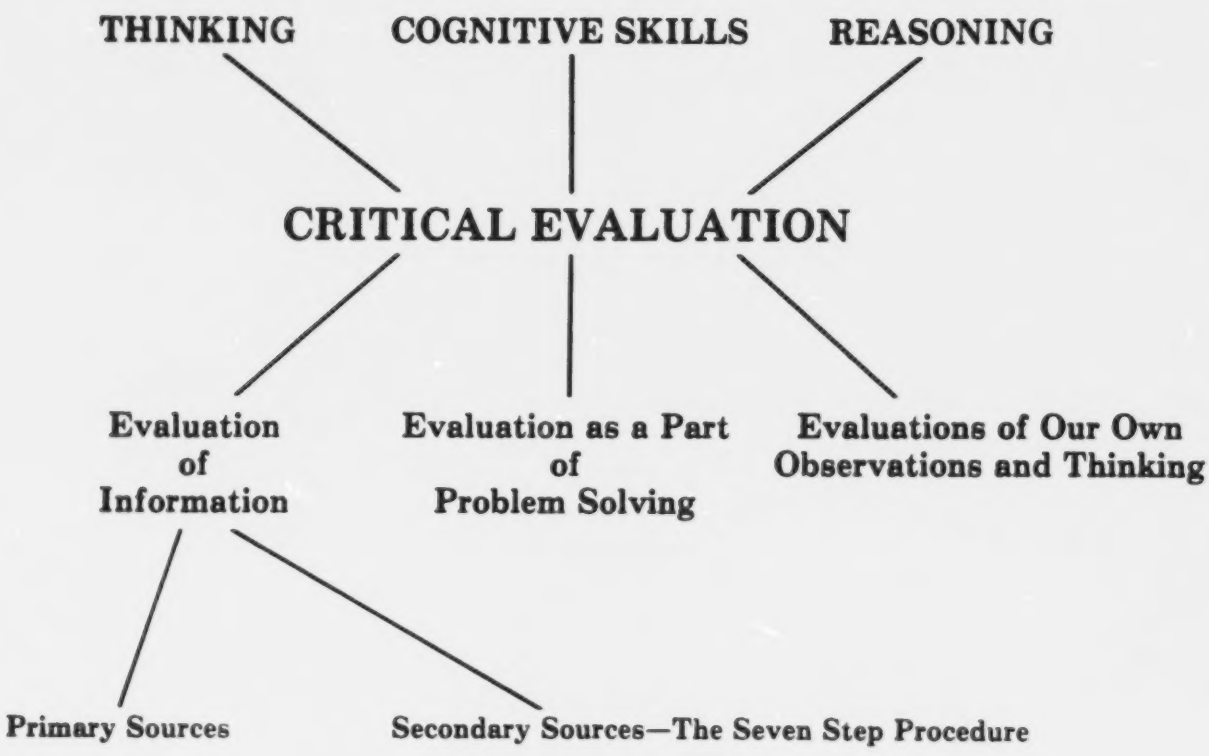

Step 1: Identify the Source.

Step 2: Describe the meaning of the communication.

Step 3: Analyze and Evaluate the Definitions of Important Terms.

Step 4: Analyze the Evidence.

Step 5: Evaluate the Evidence.

Step 6: Evaluate the Reasoning.

Step 7: Evaluate the Source by Using OTHER Sources, Both Primary and Secondary.

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7 Steps of Critical Evaluative Thinking

Step 1: Identify the source.

a. Identify the author.
b. Identify where the source was published.
c. Identify the year it was published.

Step 2: Describe the meaning of the communication.

a. State the central idea.
b. Identify the key supporting points.
c. Identify the conclusions.

Step 3: Analyze the definitions of important terms.

a. Identify important terms not defined.
b. Identify any words used incorrectly.
c. Identify propaganda techniques and correctly label them.

Step 4: Analyze and identify the psychological research evidence.

a. Nonscientific evidence (identify for use in Step 6).
    (1) self-evident truths, opinions, rumors, sayings, inferences, value judgments.
    (2) expert testimony, unsupported assertions
    (3) personal experiences
b. Scientific evidence and theories - Analyze the article to be able to identify:
    (1) hypotheses
    (2) psychological facts
    (3) psychological principle
    (4) tentative psychological facts
    (5) theories

Step 5: Evaluate the psychological facts and the related reasoning.

a. Citation - Identify who did the study and when.
b. Subjects - Identify the characteristics and number of subjects. Evaluate the selection process.
c. Procedure - Describe the procedure. Evaluate the procedure.
d. Results - Identify the probability tag. Evaluate the results.
e. Reasoning - Evaluate the reasoning.
f. Describe any conflicting evidence.

Step 6: Evaluate the rest of the article (not the research evidence).

a. Evaluate the quality of the evidence for the key points and central idea.
b. Evaluate the quality of the reasoning throughout the article.
c. Draw your own conclusions about what to believe.

Step 7: Evaluate the source using other sources.

a. Compare, contrast, and evaluate with other secondary sources dealing with the same evidence.
b. Compare, contrast, and evaluate with other secondary sources dealing with similar evidence.
c. Compare, contrast, and evaluate with the primary source.
d. Compare, contrast, and evaluate with similar primary sources.

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INTEGRATING CRITICAL EVALUATION INTO GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY. AN OVERVIEW OF THE SIXTEEN STEPS

1.	Counting Squares. Setting Course Goals	Course Goals
2.	Point out examples of critical thinking	Importance
3.	Demonstrate careful observation	Experience
4.	Weave in a few important research concepts	Small doses Key Terms
5.	Introduce critical thinking	Overview
6.	Study research concepts	Learning
7.	Apply research concepts	Application
8.	Write essay on what a psychological fact is	Summarizing Foundation
9.	Restudy if needed	Mastery
10.	Identify psychological facts	Application
11.	Do TV Observation Project	Experience
12.	Study critical evaluation	Learning
13.	Practice on critical evaluation	Application
14.	Test on critical evaluation	Test
15.	Apply now	Application
16.	Apply later	Application

On the following pages are explanations for each of the 16 steps.

INTEGRATING CRITICAL EVALUATION INTO GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY

1. Students are asked to count squares at the start of the course. To count squares we need to take a second careful look. To critically think we need to take a second careful look.

   During the first class the Course Goals are handed out and students are asked to read them for the second class. During the second class I highlight critical evaluation (critical thinking) as the most important and valuable skill in the course.

   First Two Course Goals In General Psychology

   a. When given an article on a psychological topic to read, you will be able to summarize the article by describing the central idea and key points, analyze important definitions, and identify psychological evidence.

   b. You will develop the skills involved in learning how to think like a psychologist to be able to analyze and evaluate psychological evidence found in secondary sources.

2. During the first five weeks, I comment favorably several times on the ability to think critically, ask students to evaluate informally psychological evidence, and bring to class newspaper articles on psychological topics (examples of secondary sources).

3. During the third week the film The Eye of the Beholder is used to dramatically point out the need for careful observation and the need to distinguish facts from assumptions. To provide further experience with the importance of careful observation my tie disappears during the film and the class is later asked to identify my tie. Result: Only a small minority are correct.

4. During the first five weeks some of the terms related to critical thinking are introduced. To be able to critically evaluate secondary sources in psychology, students need to learn the vocabulary dealing with psychological research methods. Students are also learning to work in pairs and small discussion groups.

KEY CONCEPTS FOR CRITICAL EVALUATIVE READING OF SECONDARY SOURCES IN PSYCHOLOGY

Identifying and Evaluating Psychological Evidence

Nonscientific Evidence

- self-evident truths
- personal experiences
- speculation
- value judgments
- opinions
- inferences
- common sense sayings

Scientific Psychological Evidence

INTERPRETING PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTS

- subjects - random sampling
- how the study was done
- limited circumstances
- control
- probability tag

IDENTIFYING FACTS

Psychological Facts	Tentative Psychological Facts
1. Citation	1. Citation
2. Description of the study	2. No description of the study
3. Research results of observations	3. Research results of observations

TYPES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EVIDENCE

Descriptive Evidence	Experimental Evidence
Clinical Observations	hypothesis
Naturalistic Observations	cause variable
Surveys	behavior variable
Tests	controlled variables
	control group
	experimental group

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5. At the end of the sixth week students read the film guide for the film Critical Thinking before class, view the film in class, and then discuss the difference between primary and secondary sources and how to recognize a fact. Students count more squares.

6. During the seventh week a programmed booklet which I wrote entitled "Getting the Facts" is read out of class. Students study and fill out the first half of the booklet for the Tuesday class. They read about several terms, are given examples, and fill out a worksheet which is turned in at the start of class.

   In class students work in pairs to think beyond the homework by filling in an activity sheet which focuses on organizing and applying the information. These sheets are then reviewed with the class and any questions are answered. The same procedure is used for a second class over the last half of the booklet. Also, students write an outline before writing their essay(see 8 below).

7. During the seventh week students see the film The Social Animal which deals with research in social psychology. Students discuss the three experiments shown in the film focusing on the research concepts. I explain briefly how experimental research concepts relate to the experiments shown in the film. Students work in pairs to improve the outlines for their essays.

8. At the start of the eighth week students demonstrate their understanding of research methods by writing an essay as homework explaining what a psychological fact is. Students are given 12 of the key terms and then asked to write an organized essay. Writing an organized summary and showing an understanding of research terms are combined in the one assignment.

9. The essays on "Getting the Facts" are due on Tuesday and are graded and returned by Thursday. Students who did poorly are given suggestions for improving their answer and are asked to restudy and redo the assignment to show that they have learned. The redo assignment is a similar kind of essay but some of the terms are changed so that increased studying is necessary.

10. During class in the eighth week students in pairs are asked to identify psychological facts from a homework reading and then given feedback.

11. During the ninth week students practice observing TV. For homework students observe three TV programs to identify the level of aggression. After making their observations, they write an informal report and draw conclusions. This project gives students experience in collecting their own psychological data.

12. During the tenth week students study a booklet which I wrote entitled "Critical Evaluation" which is filled out at home in a similar fashion as the booklet "Getting the Facts." The booklet describes each step in critical thinking, gives examples, gives practice problems, provides answers for self checking, and then has worksheets to be turned in to show learning.

During class students work in pairs using activity sheets which give practice in the 6 steps of critical evaluation. To help students understand the term "operational definitions" one-half of the class is sent into the hall to count the number of doors on the second floor of the classroom building and one-half are sent to count the number of signs. The counters are in groups of three (their answers range from 42 to 178 for doors).

13. During the twelfth week students work alone to critically evaluate a part of an article that was tried earlier in the course to help students see what they have learned. This assignment is not graded, but students share their evaluations.
14. During the fourteenth week students in class with open book and open notes are tested on their skill at critically evaluating a short psychological article they have not previously seen. If students have difficulty, they are given more time to show they can critically evaluate. About 10% still have difficulties.
15. On the final take home open book Course Review, students describe an example of where they have used their critical thinking skills. Most describe how they have used the skills to do better in other courses. Some describe events in their personal lives. Some describe how they have applied their skills to a communication in the mass media. During the last class students count squares.
16. I hope students apply their critical thinking beyond my psychology classroom. Over the years when I see former students they mention how useful critical evaluation has been. However, I have not conducted any systematic research here.

In summary, students show me that they can critically think when they can critically evaluate an article (a secondary source) they have not previously seen. This evaluation is based on a careful reading and thinking of the source in front of them. It does not involve any library research. I hope they can apply critical evaluation to newspaper articles, magazine articles, books and textbooks that they will be reading in the future.

FILMS RELEVANT TO TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING

Critical Thinking. (1971). 11 minutes, color, film. Coronet Instructional Films. 65 E. South Water Street, Chicago, IL 60601

Eye of the Beholder. (1953). black and white, film. Stuart Reynolds Productions.

Statistics At A Glance. (1972). 25 minutes, color. film. John Wiley and Sons. Made by Helios Films.

Think Twice: The Persuasion Game (1978). 19 minutes, color. film. Churchhill Films. 662 North Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90069.

Think Twice: They're Confusing You. (1978). 19 minutes, color, film. Churchhill Films. 662 North Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90069

Twelve Angry Men. This feature film is now available on videotape.

NOTE: I would like to know about films which can be used to teach critical thinking, creativity, or problem solving. Please send me information about films you have found useful.

A Different Approach to Sensation and Perception in the Introductory Psychology Course.

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A Different Approach to Sensation and Perception in the Introductory Psychology Course

Over the past several years people have mentioned that they are no longer lecturing on the Sensation and Perception chapters in the Introductory Psychology course. People are bored with the standard anatomy and lists of facts and phenomena that often make up those chapters. The following is an outline of a slightly different approach to the same basic information. The information in both chapters is organized around certain basic principles. The goal is to show how just a few principles can explain many different phenomena in the different sensory systems. The lectures are tied to numerous demonstrations, but are organized around principles rather than sensory systems. Details of the starred (*) demonstrations are provided in the appendix.

I. Our sensory systems are our only access to the world outside of our bodies. These systems define reality for us.

A. Individual differences - if your reality is defined by your sensory systems, what happens if our sensory systems differ? What is reality like for those who experience:

1. color blindness (lack of awareness in young children)
2. blindness
3. deafness
4. schitzophrenia - as a reasonable behavioral response to the information provided by their distorted sensory signals.

B. How the sensory systems send us signals about what is "out there".

1. The three efficiency mechanisms of neural processing:
   a. ignore steady state information
   b. precode for critical features
   c. separate subsystems for different functions

2. Examples of each of the three efficiency mechanisms in the different sensory systems. These all consist of demonstrations of these mechanisms in action, emphasizing the illusions these mechanisms cause.

a. ignore steady state information through lateral inhibition and adaptation.

- In Vision:
Lateral Inhibition :
The Cornsweet Illusion *
Mach Bands*
Cheshire Cat *
Adaptation:
Physiological Nystagmus and Stabilized Images *
Color After-Images *
Motion After-Effects *

- In Audition:
Lateral Inhibition:
Sharpening in auditory discrimination
Adaptation:
Verbal Transformation Effect *

- In Touch
Lateral Inhibition:
Mercury Ring *
Adaptation:
Illusory Temperature *

- In Kinesthesis
Adaptation:
Motion Illusion *

- In Taste and Smell
Adaptation:
Taste of distilled water *
Rapid loss of smell

b. precode for critical features

- In Vision
Hubel and Weisel's hierarchy of detectors

- In Audition
Phonemes and language *

- In Touch
Pressure, Pain, Temperature

- In Taste and Smell
Sour, Salt, Bitter, Sweet

c. subsystems for specific functions

- In Vision
Geniculostriate (form) system and Tectopulvinar (motion) system
Day vision (cones) and Night vision (rods) *

- In Audition
Music versus Language

- In Touch
Spinothalamic (pain) versus the Lemniscal (touch) *

II. The construction of the internal "representation" of reality

A. The difference between the sensory information and our conscious awareness of the environment (perception)

1. Demonstrations of the limited incoming sensory signals, for example: the blind spot, perimeter mapping *, dichoptic versus monoptic viewing *, and illusions caused by these limits.

B. Mechanisms that transform the sensory signals into experiences that we perceive. The perception chapter normally covers form, depth and motion perception. It can be shown that the following principles apply to each of the areas, although they are usually emphasized in only one area. It can also be shown that these principles apply to speech and music perception.

1. The Constancies
2. Gestalt Grouping Principles
3. Context
4. Attention
5. Schemata

Selected Examples:

- In depth perception
Gestalt Grouping principles, attention and context all influence the pictorial depth cues and stereopsis.

- In motion perception
Relative motion phenomena are based on the constancies, Gestalt Grouping principles , attention and context. Illusory motion is also influenced by all five factors.

For example the backwards motion of wheels in movies show the effect of proximity on the direction of illusory motion.

- In speech perception

Attention, schemata and especially context are critical. It has been shown that word identification drops by 50% when words are taken out of context. Phonemic Restoration is another example of the importance of context.

- In music perception

Context and the Gestalt Grouping Principles have been shown to be very important in music.

APPENDIX

Details for presenting selected classroom demonstrations.

1. Cornsweet Illusion -

A good picture to use can be found in Recent Progress in Perception (1976) in an article by Ratliff on Contour and Contrast, page 14. If you use construction paper and cut a black ring to fit over the contour between the two grey areas, your students will see that the areas are the same lightness.

2. Mach Bands -

Many textbooks have illustrations of Mach Bands. I got mine from the same Ratliff article cited above. The Herring Grid is another good example of the influence of lateral inhibition. My example comes from an illusion set from Carolina Biological, but again many textbooks have examples.

3. Cheshire Cat -

This fuzzy contour fades away because the transition interacts with lateral inhibition to erase the contour. My favorite version has a smile and cat ears and really does nicely mimic the Cheshire Cat from Alice in Wonderland. The version I use comes from Sensation and Perception by E. Bruce Goldstein. You need to look very closely at this so students need individual copies.

4. Physiological Nystagmus and Stabilized Images -

I first explain how the Physiological Nystagmus (tiny tremor of the eye) causes us not to adapt away images. A pen light rapidly wiggled by the side of the eye will allow students to see the Perkinje tree (blood vessels) in the eye that is normally adapted out. I then show students the examples from Pritchard's article Stabilized Images on the Retina. This article is in readings from Scientific American : Perception: Mechanisms and Models (1972).

5. Color AfterImages -

Most Introductory Psychology books have examples of stimuli that produce color afterimages. You can buy an Experiments in Vision kit from Carolina Biological that includes small strips of very bright colored paper that work well in classroom demonstrations.

6. Motion Aftereffects -

You need a motor to spin a spiral and get the spiral aftereffect. The Illusionator set model 14015 by Lafayette instruments provides a spiral aftereffect as well as several other useful illusions.

7. The Verbal Transformation Effect -

This is reported in an article by Warren, R. M. & Warren, R.P., (1970), Auditory Illusions and Confusions in Scientific American, 223, 30-36. They found that a rapidly repeated word begins to sound like other words. It is hypothesized that this change is due to adaptation (fatigue). A tape recording works best for this, but you can use your own voice.

8. Mercury Ring -

You can get a pressure version of a Mach Band on your finger using a dense substance. Mercury was originally used, however since mercury is highly toxic this is no longer done. I simple explain the experiment in class.

9. Illusory Temperature -

This is often described in the textbook. Exposing your skin to very hot water will make tepid water feel cold and exposure to cold water will make tepid water feel hot. I explain how students might set this up in the dorm with a basin of hot, a basin of tepid and a basin of cold water.

10. Vestibular Motion Illusion -

Fred Attneave showed me this demonstration. Have a student bend over from the waist, holding their back and head parallel to the floor, and walk around in a circle (keeping their head over the same position on the floor - it helps to have the student brace their head on a yard stick). This sets up a current in the vestibular labyrinth that is parallel to the floor. When the student stands up the aftereffect makes the students both see and feel the environment swing to the side. You must be very careful that the student does not throw himself or herself to the floor - either do just a few turns or be ready to catch!

11. Taste of Distilled Water -

This is often described in textbooks. Strong taste solutions will cause distilled water to take on the opposite taste. For example a very sweet solution will cause the water to taste bitter. An interesting every day example is that eating an artichoke will cause tap water to taste sweet. This adaptation in taste is analogous to seeing the complementary colors in color afterimages.

12. Phonemes and Language -

The textbook may include the information that humans are born with the ability to detect the phonemes of all languages. That is we are biologically precoded to detect all possible language. However, we lose this ability as we learn our native language and are not exposed to other phomenes. This can also be a way to introduce the concept of critical periods.

I draw and explain the dark adaptation curve. I then bring them to a dark room and talk them through the loss of color and the return of detection.

14. Pain versus Touch -

I tell the students about the use of "spinals" in surgery and that patients can feel touch but not the pain because there are two separate ascending spinal tracts.

15. Perimeter Mapping -

A Vision Disk can be purchased from Carolina Biological. This demonstrates very clearly to students that, contrary to their conscious experience, they can not see form or color anywhere but directly in the fovea.

16. Dichoptic viewing - double images -

I use a simple demonstration of having students hold two fingers in front of their eyes, one finger closer to their face. I have students switch their convergence from one finger to the other while noticing the double image of the finger they are not looking at directly. I point out that most of the objects in the room produce double images (anything they are not looking at), but normally we are unaware of all the double images.

Teaching the Reluctant Student: Coping With the Resistance

Robert A. Bernstein

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TEACHING THE RELUCTANT STUDENT: COPING WITH THE RESISTANCE. Robert A. Bernstein, (Marymount University, Arlington, Virginia)

In almost every class, there are a number of students who are resistant to the idea of learning. They may indicate their resistance in any number of ways- by missing classes, refusing to participate in discussions, coming to class unprepared, doing poorly on examinations, or looking or acting bored or disinterested. There is often one common motivating factor in these various behaviors-they don't want to be in class or do the work.

These students can pose a problem for the teacher. It may demoralize the teacher or distract him or her from the task at hand; that is, engaging the interest of the other more interested students and maintaining the appropriate level of enthusiasm and interest on their own part. Sometimes, this energy can be diverted into a fruitless power struggle with the resistant student. Often, the teacher is seduced into trying to entice or intimidate the resistant student into participating more fully in the learning process. This type of interaction will increase the chance of teacher burnout and give the resistant student an unproductive message, i.e. that theresponsibility for their learning is the teacher's, not their own.

The student's resistance is in some ways analagous to the resistance that patient's exhibit in psychotherapy. Even well motivated patient's will have to struggle with their own ambivalence in proceeding with the therapeutic task at hand, as they act out their unconscious desire to preserve the status quo and resist learning new, more effective ways of functioning. Similarly, many resistant students will recapitulate their relationships with significant others from their past and defeat the teachers attempt to join them in the learning process.

If the teacher is able to conceptualize the issue in this manner and detach from the struggle that is offered by the student, there is a greater chance of a more productive

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relationship developing. The teacher will be more likely to allow the student to choose whether or not to be engaged in the learning process and not try to do something of which they are incapable, i.e. "making" the student learn. The teacher will be more likely to use reinforcement, not punishment in their relationship with the student, because they will not be so angry. The teacher will resist the offer made by the student (to become either the stern or indulgent parent) and will remain, instead, the teacher.

A Trans-disciplinary Writing Project in Introductory Psychology

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Abstract

Two recurrent themes in discussions of liberal arts education are the need for students to learn to write well and the need for students to integrate what they learn across different disciplines. This contribution describes a paper assigned to Introductory Psychology students that attempts to meet those needs. Students write about a "hero" -- of their own choosing -- from a psychological perspective, from an ethical perspective, and from a viewpoint that connects those two perspectives in making sense of the hero. The assignment and its purposes are described, and the challenges the paper poses are addressed.

A Trans-disciplinary Writing Project in Introductory Psychology

I came up with the idea for the assignment discussed in this contribution on a plane, returning from the annual convention of the American Psychological Association. I was excited about the fact I would soon be teaching full-time for the first time. And I was excited about the area of research I have been pursuing for some years, which has to do with values and ethics.

I was also excited about the institution to which I had just moved: A new curriculum was being implemented. Although variously interpreted, at least three changes were involved: The first change was "enriched" courses -- since students were now to be taking four courses a semester instead of the previous five, courses were supposed to have some added features, or some enrichment. The second change was an emphasis on interdisciplinary exploration and integration; and the third was an increased emphasis on writing.

The question I kept asking myself on the flight home was how I could put all of these things together: the discipline of psychology, an enriched Intro course, writing, a disciplinary emphasis beyond psychology, and my own interest in values and ethics.

It was a long trip, so by the time I got home, I had put together the basic idea for a paper to be assigned to Introductory Psychology students.

In this contribution, I will describe the paper, discuss some of the challenges the paper presents to student and teacher, and then address how I deal with those challenges.

Simply put, in the paper, students examine a "hero" (of their own choosing) from a psychological perspective, from an ethical perspective, and from a viewpoint that connects those two perspectives in making sense of the hero. For instance, one student wrote about Lech Walesa. The student summarized psychological research on social influence, and illustrated how both normative and informational social influences affected Walesa. He then discussed the consequences of Walesa's actions, which is one way of addressing Walesa's life from an ethical perspective. And, finally, he discussed the relative contributions of ethics and psychology in explaining Walesa's behavior.

It's the last task -- trying to make sense of a person by combining more than one disciplinary perspective -- that makes this paper trans-disciplinary, of course. Let me say a bit more about that at the outset. I am persuaded that a liberal arts education ought to be characterized by the ability of a student to understand a problem from more than one perspective, and by

the ability to integrate the various perspectives. In the case of understanding human beings, a student should be able to integrate psychological and philosophical perspectives on human beings in making sense of a person -- after all, those disciplines attempt to understand the same person, to make sense of one person, not two.

To be sure, many students compartmentalize their lives: What goes on in their psychology classes has nothing to do with what goes on in Biology or English. And too often students think that none of the material learned in those courses is relevant to their lives outside the classroom. I think this is a serious problem; a liberal arts education ought to be about developing students' abilities to connect various disciplines and connect the life of the mind with the rest of life.

Some argue that this is impossible -- that post-modernity means the abandonment of coherence and the dissolution of the myth of unity. And so we need to abandon the Quixotic quest for coherence and connection. I beg to differ.

Others support interdisciplinary endeavors but argue that only advanced students can benefit from such academic experiences: To be able to think about a problem from a multi-disciplinary perspective, it is necessary to know both disciplines well. I have some sympathy for this position, but my perspective is somewhat different. I think there ought to be a constant dialectical movement between specialization and integration, between focusing in one area and stepping back to get a big picture. Indeed, what happens too often is that students slip into the habit of examining problems with only one set of disciplinary tools, and never get around to trying to put it altogether. Or students become locked in one perspective, and so are unable to think in a trans-disciplinary way. So, I support trans-disciplinary thinking early and often in a student's career -- in special trans-disciplinary courses and in regular courses in a given department.

Why do I call this a trans-disciplinary paper, rather than the more common interdisciplinary or multi-disciplinary? I do so to emphasize the integrative intent, to emphasize putting-together-again the relative contributions of more than one discipline. The paper is multi-disciplinary -- because students look at a hero from more than one perspective. But I want students to do more -- they also look at the hero from a point of view that is "beyond," or "trans," those disciplines. Or this third perspective attempts to climb above, or transcend the two disciplines. So I want students to try to figure out how the two disciplines connect or fail to connect in explaining their hero.

The paper is described in a ten-page handout (included at the end of this contribution). The handout is intended to answer most of the questions students have about the paper. Some read it carefully and don't need much help. Many students don't read it

and ask questions about matters clearly spelled out in the handout. I go over the handout at some length in class, and make it clear they can ask questions about the paper at any time. Students also turn in two rough drafts, so students who don't understand what I want can be pointed in the right direction. Part one is due at the end of the fourth week of the semester. There is an optional submission of the second section at the end of the eighth week. A draft of the complete paper is due the eleventh week, with the final submission occurring at the end of the fourteenth week, immediately prior to final exams.

This paper presents a number of challenges, to the students and, hence, to me. I will discuss in turn eight of those challenges, and my responses.

1. Students nowadays, it is widely claimed, don't have heroes anymore.

At the outset, many would argue that this assignment is flawed, that it reflects a profound ignorance of society and today's contemporary students. Social commentators and academics have noted -- with despair or with celebration -- that today's youth are part of the first generation that doesn't have any heroes. Well, apparently those commentators failed to inform my students of this so-called "fact" about their generation. Because most of them don't seem to have too much of a problem picking a hero.

Some students do have problems, of course, even though not as many as I expected. So I define hero in a particular set of ways, so everyone can find someone about whom to write. I use a broad definition of hero. I make it clear that what I mean by hero is simply someone the student considers praiseworthy in some way, or someone they look up to or admire. I specifically reject the idea that a hero has to be someone like Superman, or someone who is without flaw. Sometimes I tell students who get fixated on the word "hero," to drop that word and simply write about somebody they respect.

I also make it clear that students can write about a group of people (one student wrote about the hippies, for instance), or write about an anti-hero, or about a person who others regard as a hero. So, three students have written about Adolf Hitler and another about Stalin. Most students write about traditional heroes, however. Relative to the percentage of students who are ethnic minorities, heroes who are ethnic minorities are notable by their presence, that is, have been "over-represented." On the other hand, females write about heroes who are both males and females, but males write exclusively about male heroes.

One of the reasons the paper has been a success is that students choose their own hero. Many students get very involved in learning about their hero -- some have read entire biographies, for instance. This involvement means they care about the entire paper, and work hard at it.

2. Students in Introductory Psychology have minimal formal knowledge about psychology, about ethics, and about how psychologists explain moral/heroic behavior.

3. Students don't know how to do research in psychology.

To address these two challenges, I provide a list of nine sub-topics within psychology, on the assumption that it is easier to deal with a small area of psychology than with the entire discipline.

I also lecture about the relevance of these nine areas to explaining moral or heroic behavior as we cover those topics over the course of the semester. So, when we talk about motivation, I discuss how motivation can be applied to heroic behavior.

Students need to find and summarize three pertinent psychological references. At one point, students were relying almost exclusively on the text and on encyclopedias, so I added the requirement that one of the three must be a journal article. Some students provide a very simple summary of pertinent literature. Some find excellent review articles and write very sophisticated and nuanced discussions about their subtopic.

Students generally don't know how to use the library to find psychology references, so I have the Reference Librarian devote a class session to this. This has met with mixed success. Many students get overwhelmed with all the information after about 15 minutes, and their eyes glaze over. I need to try something else here, most likely several shorter sessions tied to specific assignments, so they can immediately use what they learn about finding library references.

I also schedule a couple of times when I am in the library and can walk students through the process of finding references. Students find that very helpful, though it is, of course, very labor intensive.

I also put a bibliography of pertinent references on reserve in the library, but send students to it only after they have tried finding research on their own.

4. **Students don't know what I expect.**

Students are provided with a copy of the paper handout (see end of this contribution), extensive class discussion of the assignment occurs, and the professor is available to answer questions.

5. **Students get overwhelmed at the assignment.**

I deal with this in several ways:

I tell them that well over 200 Muhlenberg students have successfully completed the paper -- so they will be able to as well.

I remind them that there are samples of the paper on reserve in the library. They were checked out 70 times one semester, so clearly students find them helpful.

I stress that they can come to me and ask questions when they get stuck (not *if* they get stuck, *when* they get stuck, since I assume they *will* get stuck).

I tell them this *is* a hard paper to write (lest they think they are stupid for having a hard time with it).

And I urge them to write the paper one step at a time, reminding them that if they do so, it will be manageable.

6. **Students try to write the definitive psychological analysis of their hero.**

I discourage this, in the paper handout and in class, while trying to rechannel the motivation behind such desires into more achievable objectives.

7. **Students don't write well.**

In those cases where this overgeneralization is true, I refer students to the college Writing Center. All students receive written comments on the first drafts of their papers. Students with questions can seek help.

8. **Students don't know APA style.**

A section of the paper handout is devoted to APA style, it is covered in class, comments on early drafts address general errors, and students are referred to the appropriate section of a book required in the

English Composition course all must take. Nevertheless, problems still arise, which seems inevitable, short of devoting substantially more time to the intricacies of the style.

In conclusion, students writing this paper learn about psychology, but also improve their writing and research skills, and learn to think from a trans-disciplinary perspective.

Hero Paper
Psychology 101

Spring, 1992

The goal of this paper is to examine a "hero" from a psychological perspective, from an ethical perspective, and from a viewpoint that connects those two perspectives in making sense of the hero.

A "hero" is defined as a praiseworthy person. This can include someone:

- who is morally praiseworthy,
  - * due to caring for others, e.g., Mother Teresa, or
  - * due to fighting injustice, often at some personal cost, e.g., Martin Luther King, Jr.; OR
- who exemplifies other (non-moral) ideals, such as
  - * scientific ideals, e.g., Einstein, or
  - * artistic ideals, e.g., the dancer, Isadora Duncan.

In other words, a hero is someone whose actions are considered to be good or right and/or whose character is considered to be virtuous (meaning they have characteristics considered praiseworthy from the perspective of some value, not necessarily that they are "sexually pure"). For the sake of this paper, heroes can either be individuals or a group of people (such as righteous gentiles in the Holocaust). They may be real persons you know, real persons you have never met, or fictional characters. They need not be your personal heroes. A hero definitely need not be perfect; the heroism can stem only from a specific action or from some particular (limited) aspect or aspects of the person's life.

It is not necessary for you to have or write about your own personal hero, or to believe that it is meaningful to talk about anybody being "good" or "virtuous" or doing something "right." In that case, you can write about someone others consider to be a hero.

What is critical is that you get enough information about the hero so you can write a brief biographical summary (or a general summary of the common experience of groups of people), can speculate about the psychological factors involved in their lives, and can reflect on the ethical issues involved.

Purposes of the Paper

- to develop writing skills
- to develop skills in interpreting psychological studies
- to apply the results of psychological studies and psychological theory to a particular individual, that is, to use psychology to help explain a given person
- to see how the perspectives of two different disciplines can be brought to bear on the same situation

- to get a taste of ethical reflection, that is, to think about what you believe about ethics and values
- to develop greater expertise in seeing how values are involved in everyday life
- to wrestle with how psychological and ethical perspectives fit (or don't fit) together in explaining a hero
- to develop skills which will contribute to life "in the real world"

Sections of the paper

Overview. The paper is to be written in five sections:

A. Biographical sketch
B. The Perspective of Psychological Research and Theory
C. Speculative Application to Hero
D. Ethical Perspectives
E. The Big Picture--Putting the Psychological and Ethical Perspectives Together, Connecting the Two

Detailed Explanation of the Five Sections:

Section A. Biographical Sketch.

Explain the origins of the hero, including (as applicable) relevant history and cultural factors, family background, and early development. Talk about pertinent developments in the hero's adult life. Discuss what the person did that might be considered praiseworthy. What hardships did the person face and overcome? If applicable, mention the role of religion or spirituality in the life of the hero. (2 - 5 pages)

Include references--either use APA style (see below) or, in this section only, use APA style for direct quotes, and use this alternative form at the end of the section for all references:

[Section based on Jones, 1989; & Smith, 1977]

Section B. The Perspective of Psychological Research and Theories.

Choose one or more of the following areas of research and theory:

1. **Sociobiology**--evolution as source of values, e.g., the altruistic gene; how do biological factors impact moral behavior? how does evolution impact values?
2. **Moral Development**--what principles of moral development apply?
   - a focus on justice (Kohlberg) and/or
   - a focus on care for others (Gilligan)
3. **Identity**--how does a person's sense of who he or she is impact his or her moral behavior?
4. **Perception**--what psychological factors impact the ability to perceive the moral aspects of situations?

5. **Learning**--how did the hero learn to behave as he or she did?

   - how does operant conditioning apply? and/or
   - how does social learning theory apply?

6. **Cognitions** (thoughts) as source of moral behavior
7. **Motivation** for moral action--what psychological factors motivated the person to act as he or she did?
8. **Personality**--what research and theory on the enduring traits of persons may explain their heroism?
9. **Social Influence**, e.g., persuasion or moral atmosphere, as source of "moral" beliefs and behaviors--how do social factors lead to moral behavior?

Find psychological references which pertain to that area. "Psychological references" means chapters in psychology books and journals (that is, journals included in Psychological Abstracts).

In writing this section of the paper, first (a) indicate which area of research and theory you are addressing. Then (b) summarize the theory and the articles. Finally, (c) discuss briefly how this area of psychology helps explain heroic behavior in general, that is, what internal or external factors might lead to, influence, or determine moral or other heroic behavior. Make sure the section "hangs together" and makes sense.

This section does not relate specifically to your hero. The psychological references thus need not discuss your hero.

You must cite at least three psychological references, that is, psychology books or journals. (Readers' Digest and Newsweek don't count, for instance.) You may, however, use your text and one (1) article from Psychology Today as two of the three. You must include one JOURNAL article.

Section C. Speculative Application of Psychological Research and Theory to the Hero.

Describe how the research and theory discussed in Section B might apply to your hero. How does that psychological literature help explain the hero? The application or explanation can be either broad or narrow in scope. That is, it can either attempt to be complete, or it can be limited to certain aspects of the hero. Further, it may include heroic aspects of the hero, non-heroic, or both.

The following questions may be helpful: How does the hero reflect the regularities in human behavior discussed in the psychological literature and theory discussed in Part B? Assuming heroism is somewhat unusual, why did this individual behave differently than most people do? What psychological factors set him or her apart from others?

If you believe the psychological literature has nothing whatsoever to say about your hero, explain why. Include your own explanation of why the hero did what he or she did.

There is no expectation that a complete and fully adequate explanation of the hero will be provided in this section. Further, the psychological perspective will not necessarily pertain to what is most important about the hero.

Section D. Ethical Perspectives.

Address each of the following three issues:

1. **What ethical issues are raised by the existence of this hero?** An ethical issue is present when questions are raised, or assertions made, about what is good or bad, what is right or wrong, or what is virtuous or morally flawed. Therefore, include a discussion of what in the hero's

   - life situation,
   - actions and accomplishments,
   - goals, and/or
   - personal characteristics

   has to do with what is

   - good or bad,
   - right or wrong, and/or
   - virtuous or flawed.

   If the hero faced any conflicts between ethical ideals, e.g., duty to country vs. duty to family, mention those also.

2. **Consequences**. Write about these questions:

   - What were the consequences of the hero's acting as he or she did?
   - What would the consequences have been if he or she hadn't acted as he or she did?
   - What would be the consequences if no one acted as the hero did?
   - What would be the consequences if everyone acted as the hero did?

3. **Do you believe it is meaningful to say that your hero's behavior is good, right, or virtuous? Why or why not?** Argue for your position in terms of one of the following five options. That is, give reasons why you believe this position is more true than one of the others. Also defend your position against at least one of the other options. Explain why you reject that other option.

Five options in response to the question, "Is it meaningful to say my hero is ethically good, right, or virtuous?":

a. Relativism--"No, because all values are relative";
b. Emotivism--"No, because all 'values' are really just emotions";
c. Subjectivism--"Yes, if someone (a subject) thinks or feels it is";
d. Limited Objectivism--"Yes--some universally applicable, objectively true values exist, and at least one applies in this situation"; and
e. Absolute Objectivism--"Yes, since there is always one correct objectively true answer to ethical questions."

Explanation of the Five Options

In response to ethical statements, such as

- "The hero's behavior was wrong,"

- "Honesty is a virtuous characteristic of the hero," or

- "It was good that the hero worked to eliminate injustice."

a. Relativism states that we can't say whether a hero is "wrong," "virtuous," or "good" because those words differ in meaning across cultures. A behavior we consider wrong may be considered right by people in another culture. We have no way of knowing who is correct and who is not. A "hero" in one culture may be considered good in one culture and evil in another, and we cannot say which judgment is right. Relativism is not to be confused with pluralism, which means acknowledging there are many different cultures and opinions about right and wrong. Pluralists can adopt any of these five options. Relativists go further and say that there is no valid, rational way of saying one ethical viewpoint is more correct than another.

b. Emotivism states "Those statements simply refer to our emotional responses in those situations: 'That hero's behavior makes me feel uncomfortable,' 'The hero's honesty makes me happy,' 'It brings me joy when injustice is eliminated by heroes.'" Emotivists don't believe one can legitimately claim that a hero's behavior is actually wrong, that his or her honesty is actually virtuous, or that his or her actions are, in fact, good. Ethical words simply express an emotional response, nothing more.

c. Subjectivism rejects the relativist and emotivist positions. It asserts that the truth of such ethical statements can be determined, but determined only in a particular way. If the hero is good, right, or virtuous, it is because of how people (subjects) think or feel about the hero, not because of the hero's characteristics or actions per se. The hero is good, right, or virtuous because the hero arouses certain thoughts or feelings in

the person making the judgment. Standards of right and wrong thus stem from the subject's beliefs and feelings about the hero rather than from any objective qualities of the hero.

d. Limited Objectivism also rejects the relativist and emotivist positions. It too asserts that the truth of some ethical statements about heroes can be determined, that at least some of the time statements about goodness, virtue, or rightness refer to what is actually good, virtuous, or right. However, objectivism disagrees with subjectivism about the nature of the truth of those statements. Objectivism states that goodness, rightness, and virtue are objective; the truth of a claim that a hero is good, right, or virtuous is independent of an individual subject's belief or feelings about its truth; the hero simply is good, right, or virtuous--whether recognized as such or not. Limited Objectivism holds that there are at least some situations in which correct ethical statements may be made, but also asserts there are some ethically ambiguous situations (to which no clear right or wrong answers may be given) and some situations with no right (or wrong) answers.

e. Absolute Objectivism is similar to Limited Objectivism except for this: It claims that there is always ONE correct answer to every ethical question. For instance, where differences between two individuals or between two cultures exist about whether a hero is good, right, or virtuous, one is always right and the other wrong.

Section E. The big picture--putting the two perspectives together, connecting the two.

Combine the psychological and ethical perspectives to form an overall explanation of the hero. As you do so, make clear how you make sense of the fact that these two different perspectives exist. Are both legitimate? That is, do both pose important questions and contribute to an explanation of the hero? Should both be used? Why? Should one be used to the exclusion of the other? Why? If it is best to use both, how is each helpful? What different contributions do the two perspectives make? What different questions do they address? Are the two perspectives in conflict in any way? If so, how is the conflict to be addressed?

Six Options for Putting Together Psychological and Ethical Perspectives on a Hero:

1. Exclusivity
2. Superiority
3. Separate Realms
4. Separate Perspectives
5. Inseparability
6. Integration in an Overarching Theoretical Perspective

Explanation of the Six Options:

1. Exclusivity
   a. Only psychological explanation and questions are valid or applicable; or
   b. Only ethical explanations and questions are valid or applicable.

2. Superiority
   a. Psychological explanations and questions are most important; or
   b. Ethical explanations and questions are most important.

3. Separate Realms--There are ethical aspects to the hero as there are psychological aspects; psychology addresses the psychological, and ethics the ethical. Each discipline should stick to its own realm and not venture into that of the other.

4. Separate Perspectives--Psychology and ethics both pertain to some of the same aspects of a hero; they simply provide different perspectives on the same realm. Both are entirely legitimate, if done well according to the canons of the discipline, that is, if carried out in the way the discipline is supposed to be carried out. The different perspectives cannot conflict because they simply represent different questions and explanations. Psychological questions and explanations are in no way pertinent to the ethical perspective; ethical questions and explanations are in no way pertinent to the psychological perspective.

5. Inseparability--Psychology needs ethics in explaining a hero; ethics needs psychology. For instance, psychology needs ethics to clarify and refine what it means by moral behavior when it studies moral behavior; ethics needs psychology to give an adequate account of pertinent facts about persons, of the actual behavior of human beings--the only backdrop against which the question of what human beings should do may legitimately be raised. Psychology and ethics may be distinguished; in providing an explanation of an individual, they are oftentimes inseparable. When psychological questions about a hero are posed or explanations offered, an answer or set of answers to ethical questions is often assumed (that is, to questions about what is good, right, or virtuous). When ethical questions about a hero are posed or explanations offered, an answer or set of answers to psychological questions is often assumed (that is, to questions pertaining to the explanation of human behavior). Ethical issues influence psychological analyses of a hero; psychological issues influence ethical analyses of a hero.

6. Integration in an overarching theoretical perspective--nestling an explanation of your hero in a comprehensive philosophical (and possibly theological) account of the nature of reality, truth, and ethics which indicates the relationships of the disciplines of psychology and ethics as part of a complete worldview. (Suggestion: Don't try this without a net.)

APA STYLE

The paper is to be written in APA Style. (The only exception is the permissible alternative form for Section A described above.) APA style is the method of citing references used in your text. To learn the details of this style, see one of the following:

1. The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (American Psychological Association, 1983) (available on reserve in the library). Psychology majors are encouraged to buy the Publication Manual in the bookstore, as APA Style is required for most psychology papers.
2. The Rinehart handbook for writers (Carter & Skates, 1990, pp. 513-527) and Writing in the disciplines to accompany the Rinehart handbook for writers (Carter & Skates, 1990, pp. 96-128). These books are used in English composition classes at Muhlenberg.

There are two parts to APA Style references:

A. In-text References--author/date/page system.
B. A References Page--full bibliographic citation on a separate page at the end of the paper.

Do not use footnotes.

A. In-text References--Include a citation in the body of the paper any time information or an idea has been derived from some source. Include the citation in the sentence or paragraph where the referenced material is included.

Direct quotations: Where the exact words (a phrase, sentence, or more) of an author are used in a paper. Include author, year of publication, and page number. This can be done in two ways. Samples:

As Mosby (1904) put it, "Lincoln was a genius" (p. 123).

As one author put it, "Lincoln was a genius" (Mosby, 1904, p. 123).

Indirect citations: Material is derived from a particular source, but the exact words of an author are not used. Include author and year of publication. Do not include page numbers. This can be done in two ways. Samples:

Lincoln has been viewed as an extremely bright president (Mosby, 1904).

As Mosby (1904) noted, Lincoln has been viewed as an extremely bright president.

For Section A ONLY, there are two options:

Option A: As above.

Option B:

Cite as above for direct quotations.

For indirect citations, you may add a note at the end indicating the sources upon which you drew in writing the section. That is, you don't have to indicate at every point in section A where you obtained a particular piece of information. Sample:

[Section based on Mosby (1904) and Smith (1989).]

B. Reference(s) Page

On a separate page at the end of the paper, give the full bibliographic citations for all references upon which you relied in writing the paper. Include all materials you used; do not include pertinent references you did not use. Put the word "References" (without quotation marks) at the top center of the page.

Samples:

References

[The authoritative text. On reserve in the library:] | [Don't include bracketed material in the paper

American Psychological Association. (1983). Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association. Washington, DC: Author.

[Journal article:]

Green, A. H. (1975). Motivation in rats, rascals, and religion. Journal of Motivational Psychology, 24, 423-430.

[Books:]

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Myers, D. G. (1989). Psychology (2nd ed.). New York: Worth.

[Article in an edited book:]

Snodgrass, L. (1992). Subliminal perception and cognitive mapping: A grand synthesis. In J. Jones (Ed.), Advances in cognition and perception (pp. 128-141). New York: Science Press International.

[Encyclopedia article:]

Smith, D. B. (1989). Abraham Lincoln. In R. Callow (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Africana (Vol. 8, pp. 212-224). Nairobi, Kenya: African International Press.

[See both books by Carter & Skates (1990) or the APA Manual of Style (on reserve in the library) for examples of other types of citations.]

[To get a "hanging indent" format for the references (as in the samples, the first line is at the left margin, but subsequent lines are indented 3 characters) in MS Word 5.0, either (a) put in the spaces manually, or (b) highlight the section, and use Esc-FORMAT-PARAGRAPH: move curse to "left indent" and type ".3"; move the cursor to "first line" and type "-.3"; hit return.]

Note that APA Style requires the use of non-sexist language; thus, for instance, "he" or "man" are not used when you refer to both males and females.

It's okay--encouraged even--to discuss the paper with friends and get ideas from them. If you get ideas from them that you use in the paper, cite this as a "personal communication." Use this form: "Tom Holt (personal communication, November 1, 1990) argued that ..." or "the idea of moral identity may help explain Susan Anthony's heroism (C. Smith, personal communication, November 1, 1990)."

All references in the text (except personal communications) should be included in the Reference List at the end of the paper.

General Considerations:

The paper MUST include citations for references used, including AT LEAST THREE PSYCHOLOGICAL REFERENCES (see definition in B. above). One of the three must be a JOURNAL article.

Plagiarism = "Passing off as one's own the ideas, words, writings, and experiments of another" or "knowingly copying from a book, article, notebook, or other source material whether published or unpublished, without giving proper credit through the use of quotation marks, footnotes, and other customary means of identifying sources." -- Muhlenberg Academic Behavior Code.

For this assignment, the "customary means of identifying sources" is to be APA Style (American Psychological Association, 1983).

PLAGIARISM, THE FAILURE TO GIVE PROPER CREDIT TO THE SOURCE OF YOUR IDEAS, IS STRICTLY FORBIDDEN.

Sample papers (not guaranteed to be perfect) and a bibliography for Section B are on reserve in the library for your review.

Due Dates: Section A: Friday, February 7 (4th week of the semester)
Optional submission, section B: Friday, March 13 (8th week)
First complete draft: Wednesday, April 1 (11th week)
Final revision: Friday, April 24 (14th week)

WHO IS THIS CHILD?

CHILDREN'S LITERATURE IN A HUMAN DEVELOPMENT CLASS

Joan C. Mulligan and Lynn A. Book
Green Mountain College, Poultney, VT

A Presentation at the SUNY 6th Annual Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology Conference

Ellenville, NY March 18-20, 1992

Who Is This Child? Children's Literature in a Human Development Class

Joan C. Mulligan and Lynn A. Book
Green Mountain College, Poultney, VT

Everyone has a theory about children. Each of us thinks she knows a great deal about their development. Our students are no different from us in this area. How difficult could the study of child psychology be when it's only about kids? What could I possibly learn that I don't already know? After all, I've been a kid.

Attitudes like those just mentioned and the fact that multiple sections of Human Development 1 (Child Psychology) are taught every year are sufficient motivation to change the framework for the course on a regular basis. It would obviously create a deadly situation if the teacher were bored with the material and if the students came to the course with minds closed by pseudo-knowledge.

In addition to the subject matter of each course we teach, it is important to be concerned about other issues, such as: students' reading and writing ability and the lack of same, the invalid assumption that the white, American middle class way of "raising" children is the only way and the sense that children are miniature adults and as such are incomplete, incorrect and need to be straightened out.

Many of us have had the experience of having students describe themselves as non-readers, and having them

frequently express difficulty with reading assignments for class. As for outside reading for enrichment or pleasure - there doesn't seem to be a lot of that going around.

A few years ago, a mini-project was initiated within the context of the Human Development class to address students' lack of contact with books. Children's literature was introduced not only as a means of understanding children, but also as a way of renewing contact with books which, it was assumed, had provided moments of joy and enrichment during childhood. Many students said that the project made them want to read more. Some even acknowledged that re-reading these books provided them with their first pleasure reading since the last contact with such literature. Judy Blume, Beatrix Potter, Frank Dixon, and Beverly Cleary helped students to realize that reading IS good, and that they ARE NOT non-readers. In their evaluations of the course, students clearly demonstrated that the literature segment had had a profound effect on them as students of development and as readers and learners.

Among the goals of the teacher of human development is the opening of students' minds to the diversity of cultural and ethnic influences which impact the development of children. In past semesters, the study of cross cultural research had provided opportunities for expanding our customary ethnocentric viewpoint. In addition, students had been encouraged to keep up with current events and articles

in the daily press which addressed issues about children from a variety of backgrounds. It seemed that children's literature would be a wonderful resource in this area, since so many authors of children's books had chosen to address the issue of diversity in recent years.

In 1991, the Assistant Librarian and the Human Development teacher decided to collaborate on an expanded project which would be integrated with the course material and which would offer a new framework for the subject matter. The Assistant Librarian began working on the development of a bibliography and the Professor worked on the subject matter of the course. The integration of the course materials and the literature was a collaborative effort.

At the outset, the course was organized around an historical theme. Cleverly and Phillips' (1986) Visions of Childhood provided a framework for looking at how society has viewed and treated children through the ages and across cultural domains. With this as a background, the study of the child was followed developmentally, from conception to puberty. An attempt was made to provide students with readings in the literature for the young which would follow these themes and reinforce the learning that was taking place.

The intent was to bring vitality to the subject matter, to make learning about children as exciting an experience as childhood itself. The bonus was that the semester-long

experience would open the class participants' ethnocentric eyes. Children's literature was the vehicle : what better way to discover children than through the literature written for and about them?

In keeping with the historical organization of the beginning of the course, initiation into the multicultural world began with readings from 17th and 18th century American children's literature. The New England Primer was the main course in the intellectual nourishment of young colonists (Ford, 1899). While the date of the particular edition studied by the class is 1899, the Primer existed in many variations for approximately two centuries, the first edition dating back to somewhere around 1680. This "lesson book" featured typical sections, such as an alphabet, but had a particularly Puritan bent; there were often rhyming prayers and condensed Bible history stories to be memorized.

James Janeway, who wrote A Token for Children in 1672, portrayed even more terrifying versions of childhood in Colonial America. After hearing a sermon promising destruction to hardened hearts, eight-year-old Sarah Howley (one of the protagonists),

> spent a great part of the night in weeping and praying... desiring with all her soul to escape from everlasting flames, and to get an interest in the Lord Jesus (Demers, 1982, p.45).

These and other selections showed a world in which children were to be seen and not heard, were looked upon as inherently

evil, and did not know the meaning of the word fun. To the students in the Human Development class, the children in these writings may as well have been from another planet! It was difficult for the class to understand the mores of American society 250 years ago.

The observation of a past society's very narrow view of children helped to make the class aware of the narrowness of the present-day view-point. How does the modern world really see children? In the present age are children seen as endangered, disabled, or prone to evil, as needing to be molded, as parental investments in the future, as inconvenient, as financial and social drains on the parenting couple? Are these misperceptions of children today just as constraining as those of past ages? These questions led to lively discussions of "Who IS this child?".

As the Puritan age passed into history, so did the puritanical vision of childhood. The 19th century ushered in the beginnings of what is understood to be the modern child. Palmer Cox's (1887) series of stories about the mischievous Brownies introduce the world of imaginary beings and the legitimacy of play. The Brownies are described as "imaginary little sprites, who are supposed to delight in harmless pranks and helpful deeds" (p. vii). So, in their character description, they already symbolize playfulness.

The story of "The Brownies at School" links the new idea of children as playful, joyous, and mischievous with the

Puritan work (and learn) ethic. Rhymes and illustrations show both the children who come to write and read, and those who spend their time poking their neighbors and pulling pigtails. One of the closing stanzas aptly connects the two concepts:

> "...taken up was every mind
> with fun and study well combined..."
> (Cox, 1887, p. 5).

The role of play in the physical and social development of the child was appropriately dealt with as the class became aware of this new attitude towards children. Students noted that young children do not seem to have the arbitrary categories of work and play that adults have. Play is the child's work. The implications of this for peer and parental relationships, and for the development of the child's self esteem are clarified in Bruno Bettelheim's (1985) A Good Enough Parent and Monighan-Nourot, Scales, Van Hoorn, and Almy's (1987) Looking at Children's Play.

Other authors who combine the ideas of fun and learning are those mentioned in Demers' and Moyles' (1982) book From Instruction to Delight. The chapter entitled "Harbingers of the Golden Age" has excerpts from many contemporaries with not-surprisingly similar views of children. Ann Gilbert's poem about Meddlesome Matty and excerpts from Heinrich Hoffmann's (1848) The English Struwwelpeter; or, Pretty Stories and Funny Pictures for Little Children show children as naughty, but with redeeming qualities. Instead of the black and white picture painted by the Puritans, children are

portrayed in multiple colors, or at least in several shades of gray.

The characters in the literature of the 1800's reflect experiences similar to those of the present time. Children were allowed time for play, and could be mischievous without being damned to an eternity in Hell. It seemed to the college students that people with similar beliefs and experiences are easier to like and accept than people whose ideas differ from their own. It was exactly this narrow perspective which was being addressed in the course.

The more contemporary children's literature seemed to lend itself well to the study of stages and areas of child development. The Newsweek (1990) Special Edition on "The 21st Century Family," exposed the class to the new and exciting discoveries in the field of infertility, which have made it possible for couples to have babies for whom this would have been an impossibility years ago. In addition, it heightened students' awareness of the family of today which often consists of a single parent, other-than-parent caregivers, and the growing number of gay and lesbian couples who are adopting and, in some cases, having children. These and other factors of contemporary society led to the use of the word "caregivers" rather than "parents" in most contexts. It became more and more obvious that the essential qualities of caregivers superseded race, gender, ethnicity and economics.

One of the class' favorite books was "More, More, More,"

Said the Baby, which focuses on emotional development (Williams, 1990). Vignettes from different households each present an adult and a child in bonding activities. A Caucasian pair, a racially-mixed pair, and an Asian pair showed that the love between caregiver and child is an emotion that all humans experience, regardless of ethnic or other differences. The basic nature of childhood transcends these boundaries.

The question "Who is this child?" is answered each time we pick up a book written for children. Is the child born sinful? The Puritans and Wesley thought so. Is the child born pure and good? Rousseau and Neill would agree. That the child is a developing individual and not a miniature adult is clear from the books which truly appeal to children. From the silly rhymes of Dr. Seuss to the fantasies of Tolkien, the child's world is qualitatively different from that of the adult.

Piaget developed his stage theory by observing children, asking them questions and listening to their answers. The child who in his egocentrism believes that the moon follows him at night relates well to the book Goodnight Moon. The child who manifests animism in wrapping a doll in a blanket so that it will not be cold, is delighted by the adventures in Corduroy or A Bear Called Paddington. These concepts of child development became clearer to the college students as they saw examples in the literature.

The social and emotional development of the child is clearly enhanced by exposure to literature. The developing child can begin to show distress at the difficulty of a character in a book. In Henry and Mudge (1990), children are aware of the sadness of both the little boy Henry and his dog Mudge, when Mudge becomes lost in the country. Her problem solving techniques can be enhanced by books like Changes, Changes (1971), which tell of the resolution of problems. In this case, the characters create a home out of building blocks, turn it into a fire engine when it begins to burn, and continue to build their way out of their predicaments.

Language development - from 50 to about 8,000 words during the preschool years - is certainly enhanced by contact with stories which improve vocabulary and word knowledge. Word recognition is aided by illustrations such as those in Polar Express, or by photographs, such as Shadows and Reflections. In discussing the development of children's language, the college students could see the importance of exposure to the spoken word - to the ordinary every day word and the wonderful words of these books - which even seemed to talk the way that children did. From picture books like Anno's Alphabet, and easy readers such as Go, Dog, Go!, to works of medium difficulty like Max's Chocolate Chicken, and complex mysteries such as The Eleventh Hour, students became aware of the unfolding of the child's language potential.

Other aspects of cognitive and social development can be

taught from diverse perspectives. Baby's World is a picture catalog of items used by babies and young children on a daily basis (Shott 1990). The infants pictured are racially diverse, but the universality of the objects connects all of the children. Monfried's (1990) Daddies Boat speaks to changing parental roles. The "daddy" in this story stays at home and serves as primary caregiver, while the "mommy" works all week and takes the "daddies boat" home to join her family on weekends. Books like Spot's First Words introduce basic concepts using a protagonist quite unlike the human reading the book.

A study of traditional folk tales provided a look at cultural differences from another perspective. The class participants examined an American version of Little Red Riding Hood (Hyman, 1983) and a Chinese version of the same story called Lon Po Po (Young, 1989). The plot and characters in the two versions were similar, but with a few important twists. In the Chinese version, there are three children, and the mother is the character who goes to visit the sick Grandmother (Po Po). The wolf discovers very quickly what is happening, and disguises himself as the grandmother who has come to visit her three grandchildren. The "questioning" of the grandmother about her ears, teeth, and other physical features is nearly the same.

The most striking contrast, however, is in the presentation of the moral of the story. The struggle between

good and evil is very much an individual one in the American tale. In the Chinese version, the problem is resolved through community effort. Who is this child? Is she an individual, or a member of a community, or does each perspective contribute something valid to the total picture?

The influence of cultural, familial, and educational background became the basis for discussion of the many social issues of the day which affect children, such as: genetic engineering, abortion, education, day care, and gender differences in social and academic achievement, among others.

Diversity does not limit itself to culture. It is apparent in every facet of people's lives. The Big Book For Peace (Durrell, 1990), a collaborative effort by writers and illustrators of children's literature, presents examples of some of these other facets. In this particular work, the individual stories are linked together by the theme of peace.

Economic diversity is dealt with subtly in "Tree House" by Lois Lowry. Chrissy, the African American protagonist, has a tree house built by her grandfather. The wood is new from the lumberyard, has a fresh coat of paint, and a rug and a brass doorbell are purchased as special adornments. Most significant, however, is the sign for the front door: CHRISSY'S HOUSE, KEEP OUT!

Leah, the Caucasian protagonist and Chrissy's friend, is not allowed in the tree house, and has her father build one of her own. Leah's father is at home because he lost his

job. There is no extra money for paint and brass trimmings. But Leah has pictures of beautiful women from her mother's salon and a bowl of fresh fruit. And a sign that says: LEAH'S HOUSE, KEEP OUT!

The girls discover the meaning of loneliness and resolve their differences by building a physical bridge between the two tree houses that serves as a symbolic bridge between the two girls and their particular economic, ethnic, and emotional frames of reference. Readers are exposed to the value of cooperation, interpersonal skills, and the possibility that the differences between people are as important to accept as the similarities.

Looking back, the incorporation of diversity into the Human Development classroom was beneficial both to students and to teachers. The focus on children's literature brought many examples of diversity to the foreground, from readings dating back to Colonial America, to traditional folk tales, to 20th century works. The class became aware of both the continuity of certain societal issues across time within cultures, and across different cultures. They also witnessed the differences that exist both within and between cultures. It seemed that studying human development through children's literature opened the participants' eyes to the many ways in which children have been and are now being viewed.

Who is this child? Perhaps we do not have the complete

answer yet, but at least we have come to realize how much we do not know and how narrow a viewpoint we have had in the past.

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The Teaching of Psychology with a Gender-Balanced Curriculum

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The Teaching of Psychology with a Gender-Balanced Curriculum

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Over the past 30 years the recognition of the rights and needs of women has surfaced in our society. The emergence of the feminist social movement has stimulated psychologists to reexamine the existing body of psychological research with respect to its relevance to women and women's lives. Psychologists are beginning to become aware of the deficiencies that exist in psychological theories with respect to human diversity. Traditional psychological theories are largely designed to explain the behavior of white majority males, while females and female behavior are viewed as either deviant and deficient or ignored altogether. Textbooks, with few exceptions, present distorted views of female behavior and abilities (Denmark, 1985). The above findings have lead to new areas of scholarly work which focus on the female life experience. In turn, an awareness has developed to include and integrate the experiences of women into psychology curriculums. Most courses in psychology currently provide little insight into scholarship on women.

Until recently scholarship on women has entered the curriculum primarily through special topics courses (i.e., psychology of women). There are a number of advantages to conducting specialized courses in the psychology of women. Firstly, it is thought to compensate for

the existing biases which might exist in other psychology courses. Secondly, such specialized courses expose students to the new research findings on women. Lastly, these classes tend to enroll well which is an economic advantage.

While special topic courses allow for an in-depth examination of women's issues and are typically well received by students, they bring with them some disadvantages. For example, many institutions cannot afford to offer an entire course on the psychology of women. Walsh (1986) found that less than one quarter of four year colleges offer a course on the female experience. In addition, these courses may only attract individuals who are especially open to and interested in these issues. Separate courses on women may also create an illusion that the psychology of women is a unique and different form of psychology. In addition, a token psychology course on women is not enough to understand all of the issues involving women. Special topics courses which focus solely on women are valuable, but may not be adequate to gender-balance the psychology curriculum. Adequately balancing the curriculum might best be accomplished by mainstreaming women's issues into all psychology courses. By mainstreaming these issues and topics into the curriculum all students will have exposure to a more comprehensive psychology program. Research on women has created a new body of knowledge; we need to reshape our understanding of the traditional curriculum to encompass this scholarship. There are several ways in which we can integrate women's issues and topics into many of the courses typically offered within a psychology curriculum.

Examples of Mainstreaming

Below are several examples for mainstreaming women's issues into psychology courses other than the psychology of women. These examples help to integrate the new scholarship on women into the entire psychology curriculum.

When teaching Experimental Psychology I spend one class on sexist biases in psychological research. The Experimental Psychology class is the perfect place to address the issues of sexist and racial bias in research. I begin the class by discussing the relationship between gender and science. At first glance, science appears untouched by sexual allusion. While science is in theory to be an objective search for the truth, a number of biases can interfere with the process. The values and ideologies of the society influence the search for truth as well as researchers doing the research. The influence of sex on science has been more widespread then many students would have supposed. I have the class read Grady (1981) and McHugh, Koeske, & Frieze (1986) for a review of the literature on sex bias in research design. In class we discuss the stages at which biases can influence the research process. I present examples of bias with respect to; formulating the hypothesis, designing the study, performing the study, interpreting the data and communicating the findings. We then discuss the literature on conducting non-sexist research. The students are asked to find an empirical article in any field of psychology. I then have the students critique the article for the types of sexist biases

we have discussed in the readings and in class. This exercise helps to sharpen the students skills for detecting and eliminating bias in research.

In my classes that discuss the biological determinants of behavior, such as Comparative Psychology or Introduction to Psychology, the topic of Sociobiology is bound to be discussed. Sociobiology is a theory which attempts to explain social behavior, relationships and organizations in animals and humans in terms of biological and genetically determined mechanisms (see Alcock, 1992 and Barash, 1982). Sociobiology claims the innateness of such things as sex differences and social roles and positions within the society. I present this theory to my classes and have them discuss the implications of such a theory. The implications generally generate a rather heated discussion, especially when I ask the class what sociobiology's interpretation of inequality and rape might be. I then lecture on some of the limitations of sociobiology; this critique involves a discussion of the questionable methodology that is used in sociobiology, which might lead to distorted research findings (see Bleier, 1984). The heavy reliance of animal models is discussed as well as the tendency for anthropomorphism. The criticism that sociobiology is highly selective with respect to the references that are cited is presented. Lastly, I point how the role of the environment is under-represented in the theory of sociobiology. I then discuss the many diverse findings with respect to how the environment can influences both the structure and function of the brain as well as behavior.

Material that I discuss in my Psychology of Women class on psychopathology can easily be integrated into a course on Abnormal Behavior. It is important that when you discuss psychological disorders in class that you discuss the epidemiological patterns associated with a given disorder. That is, present to the class the data on gender, race, and marital status. For example, women are more likely to experience depression than men. On the other hand, men are more likely to abuse substances. The issue of gender is central to any discussion of mental illness. The epidemiological data should raise questions in class about the social and political meanings of psychopathology. Using the epidemiological findings you can develop a better understanding of the relationship between abnormalities and gender. It is also important to point out the various explanations for the higher rate of mental illness among women. Firstly, it should be pointed out that the precise definition of mental illness will influence the observed gender difference. Secondly, it is critical to the discuss the data on mental illness and marital roles. This data allows you to go beyond a purely biological explanation of a disorder and allows for an examination of the relationship between gender roles and mental illness. Lastly, it is essential to discuss biases that exist with respect to diagnoses. It has been suggested in the literature on gender and psychopathology that there might be a double standard in mental health, this class is the perfect place to discuss such a notion.

I have found that when I introduce research on women into courses other than the psychology of women, students are extremely eager to learn about these topics. I also experience satisfaction

about reaching more than the self-selected group of students who take my psychology of women course. While transforming the curriculum sounds like the solution to the inequality, there are some disadvantages that need to be considered. Faculty members may not be professionally current on the new scholarship on women. Colleges and universities would have to invest time and money in retraining programs. In addition, faculty members may not be interested in and/or willing to incorporate the new scholarship on women into the courses they currently teach. Textbooks would have to be restructured to be more gender-balanced. Some professionals argue that the psychology of women material and traditional mainstream psychology could never successfully fuse.

Even though a transformed curriculum is needed, transforming a curriculum is a difficult task that will require much time and energy. It seems obvious that separate classes on the psychology of women serve a purpose in that they bridge the gap between a unbalanced and a balanced curriculum. We can use the separate courses on the psychology of women as a catalyst to mobilize resources for the more complicated task of mainstreaming this new research into the curriculum.

The goal is to integrate, that is to create a curriculum which stresses the diversity of human experience by including issues and information about gender issues. By integrating women's issues into the psychology curriculum we are taking the first step towards fully integrating diversity into the psychology curriculum.

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Freud, Problem Solving, Ethnicity, and Race: Integrating Psychology into the Interdisciplinary Core Curriculum

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Abstract

Psychology can be an integral and flexible component within interdisciplinary core curricula. I discuss how psychology is integrated into three of seven core courses in Moravian College's new curriculum. The psychological topics presented in Microcosm/Macrocosm, Quantitative Problem Solving, and the Core Seminar are not meant to be exhaustive introductions to the field of psychology; rather, the topics are meant to serve as representative examples of how intellectual issues can be approached from a psychological perspective within an interdisciplinary context.

Freud, Problem Solving, Ethnicity, and Race: Integrating Psychology into the Interdisciplinary Core Curriculum

Within the continually shifting trends of higher education, none is subject to more debate than the place of the core curriculum. In academic settings, the decision to institute such a program at all is only half the battle -- the discussion of what courses to place within it and what disciplines to prominently represent (or not) can create as much furor. It can be argued that specific content of core courses is not the real issue; instead, emphasis on intellectual rigor and flexibility across courses may be the key to a viable curriculum. In short, the traditional disciplinary focus can be sacrificed in favor of an interdisciplinary one.

Psychology's Place in the Core Curriculum

The discipline of psychology can be an integral and flexible component within core curricula. Within some core programs, psychology can be one of the main offerings, a single course that gives an overview of the entire field or one area in it. Topics from cognitive psychology, such as memory and decision making, could be the center of a course on problem solving. Similarly, a course emphasizing the experience of the individual within groups or the wider social world could utilize material from social psychology.

In other curricula, select topics from psychology may be embedded within the material of a course or courses as a means to promote a more interdisciplinary focus. Thus, psychology may be

placed within some broader context -- Western culture or the scientific method, for example.

Moravian College's new core curriculum, which has been partially funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH), utilizes this interdisciplinary option by placing psychological topics within three of the curriculum's seven core courses: Microcosm/Macrocosm II (M/M II), Quantitative Problem Solving (QPS), and the Core Seminar (CS) (see Table 1).

Insert Table 1 About Here

The purpose of this paper is to illustrate how psychological topics, when embedded within particular courses, can contribute to the development of interdisciplinary core curricula. To do so, I will provide an overview of our three courses and then explicitly discuss the role of psychological topics within each one.[1]

Microcosm/Macrocosm

The freshmen year of Moravian's core contains a two-semester sequence of courses, M/M I and II, which focuses on major themes in Western culture. The title "Microcosm/Macrocosm" is meant to convey the method of the course -- the examination of a representative work (e.g., Sophocles' Antigone as "microcosm") in order to understand the cultural milieu in which it was created (i.e., the political and social worlds of ancient Greece, the

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[1]Syllabi from the three core courses may be obtained from the author.

"macrocosm"). Given this unusual melding of text and time, the course is designed to be very different from the usual introductory history of Western culture class. During the 1991 - 1992 academic year, the M/M courses were staffed by faculty from foreign languages, religion, history, and psychology.

Psychology is introduced in M/M II by examining Sigmund Freud's views on the human mind and culture. Freud is an appropriate figure for study not only because of his high name recognition among undergraduates, but also because his ideas represent a move toward applying the scientific method to understanding human experience. The goal of this unit is to have students wrestle with the difficulties Freud faced in creating an account of human nature that is based on myth, Enlightenment philosophy, fledgling science, intuition, and his experience with patients. The students are left to decide for themselves if Freud's ideas are legitimate and useful for describing human experience.

Students read an introductory essay[2] (Dunn, 1991) and two texts: On Dreams (Freud 1901/1989), an encapsulated version of Freud's method of dream analysis, and Civilization and Its Discontents (Freud 1930/1961), an often dark account of his views on cultural advancement and self-alienation. Freud's 1932 correspondence with Albert Einstein, the Why War? letters (Einstein and Freud, 1932/1964), and a more recent account of the nature of dreams (Dolnick, 1990) are also used for discussion.

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[2]Faculty teaching in M/M I & II have typically written overview essays of the topics they present, a provision which allows them to introduce their particular point of view.

Students complete two writing projects during the Freud segment of M/M II. In the first, they interpret a dream in the Freudian manner, which means they keep a dream diary, free associate to all parts of a selected dream, and then consider in what ways the latent content of the dream suggests a wish fulfillment. The second project involves responding to the Why War? letters. After reading the short correspondence, students compose a letter in response to the ideas presented in it. This response is addressed to Freud, to Einstein, or both (see Dunn, in press).

The Freud segment was also designed to be flexible, so material could be added or deleted as necessary. This semester, for example, a psychoanalytic interpretation of the play Hamlet (one of Freud's passions) was replaced by two sessions devoted to the ideas of Carl Jung. A colleague from Moravian's Religion and Philosophy Department who has a strong interest in Jungian symbolism lectured on Freud's former disciple and rival. This change allowed students to learn about a competing approach to the problems studied by Freud, and it did so by emphasizing an interdisciplinary side of these "psychological" topics.

Quantitative Problem Solving

Interdisciplinary contributions to understanding problem representations, heuristics, decision strategies, logic, and critical thinking processes are reviewed in QPS, another freshman-level course. The goal of the course is to teach the student to approach solving problems in a systematic fashion, one that focuses on process rather than obtaining the "correct"

answer. The team developing this course (an education professor, a mathematician, and a sociologist) wrote a text (see Dilendik, Somers, & Smolansky, 1992) promoting the CORE model for problem solving.

CORE is an acronym for a recommended four-step approach to problem solving. These steps include **clarifying** the problem, **organizing** available information, **resolving** the problem by relating pieces of the information and testing possible solutions, and **examining** the outcome. Students learn to move through these steps sequentially, although they are encouraged to "loop back" to earlier steps in the model as needed.

Beyond gaining familiarity with the CORE model, students learn how to graph and to chart data, as well as to create and to interpret data tables and diagrams. Probability, statistics, and logic are covered in some detail in the course, given their use in problem solving. Particular emphasis is placed on training students to draw appropriate rather than biased inferences from quantitative information. To achieve these goals, students also read a text on biases in reasoning (Campbell, 1974), as well as a book on critical thinking (Browne & Keeley, 1990) and one dealing with probability (Truxal, 1989).

Psychology's major contribution to QPS is to draw attention to perspectives on problem solving and decision making often studied in cognitive psychology. When learning about developing knowledge structures for problem solving, for example, students learn about memory structure and the apparent constraints posed by it. The examination of verbal, symbolic, and visual problem

representations illustrates the ease with which various categories of problems may (or may not) be solved. Across the course, students are exposed to both search strategies (e.g., random trials, algorithms, hill-climbing methods) and decision strategies (e.g., additive weighting, decision trees, hypothesis testing).

Students complete two projects across the semester, both of which have psychological overtones. In the first, students essentially design a behavior modification or life-style management project. They first read a detailed analysis of smoking as a life-style management problem and then, following this model, select an actual problem they wish to resolve (e.g., test anxiety, procrastination, weight). To appropriately tackle their problem and to complete the assignment, they must proceed step by step through the CORE model.

The second project, a content analysis exercise, is more oriented toward data analysis. Students are divided into groups, each of which monitors one evening's worth of the prime time (8:00 to 11:00 p.m.) television programs on one of the major networks. Each group concentrates on one category of social roles pertaining to the programs' characters -- gender roles, racial/ethnic portrayals, or age differences. To achieve this goal, each group develops data collection schedules and coding frames so that a variety of variables (e.g., type of show, age/gender/minority status of main characters, personal traits of those characters, theme of episode or film) can be recorded. All data are then entered into a collective file and subjected to

statistical analysis so that the results can be written up and presented to the whole class.

In a very real sense, the goal of the QPS course is to illustrate that any data -- psychological or otherwise -- cannot be understood in isolation. Creative problem solving can occur when an interdisciplinary perspective is adopted.

The Core Seminar: Gender, Ethnicity, and Race

"American Character" is the focus of the sophomore CS, the capstone course in Moravian's core curriculum. We use the term "character" to refer to all those qualities that make an individual different from others. In particular, character can include one's personal moral nature or strength. The goal of this last course is to critically explore the arguably unique (and often contradictory) aspects of American character, including self-reliance, conformity, individualism, honesty, and prejudice. The CS is currently staffed by a social psychologist, a theologian, and an education professor.

In lieu of traditional textbooks, the course relies on novels, a play, and three autobiographical works -- each of which was written by an American author dealing with an American theme or issue. However, the recent sociological tour de force on American values, Habits of the Heart (Bellah et al., 1985), does serve to organize many of the themes presented in these readings. Issues raised by the literary works or the Habits text are further explored by having students watch a variety of American films. These films range from that classic portrayal of love and American heroism, "Casablanca," to the uncertainty of

understanding between races illustrated by Spike Lee's "Do the Right Thing."

Psychology is least explicit in this final course in the core curriculum, but traditionally psychological topics abound in the issues covered in readings and class discussion. Gender and race are obvious in their psychological content, ethnicity less so. However, individual and group processes are common to all three topics, and undoubtedly influence the development of American character as well.

Thus, while prejudice and discrimination are discussed in the course of reading The Autobiography of Malcolm X (X & Haley, 1964), no conscious effort is made at the outset to couch these issues in current psychological theory. Rather, it was assumed that because I was the only psychologist teaching in the CS, I would offer comments when the issues arose in the course of discussion. In developing the course, the faculty involved went out of their way to avoid imposing any initial disciplinary boundaries so that spontaneous analysis and debate could be fostered in the classroom. Further, it was our hope that the CS could serve as the appropriate context where material learned in the earlier core courses could be applied.

Gender is explored through discussing novels and contemporary research in social science. Hawthorne's (1986) The Scarlet Letter, Updike's (1968) Couples, and selections from Deborah Tannen's (1990) You Just Don't Understand provide fertile ground for discussing the often difficult relations between men and women. The current problems women experience in balancing

career with family is examined in chapters from The Second Shift (Hochschild, 1990), a penetrating analysis of role demand and conflict among American women.

The CS's semester-long project deals with ethnicity as a component in character. Early in the term, students are asked to consider how their ethnic backgrounds helped, if at all, to shape their own sense of self. The remainder of the semester is spent researching the selected ethnic group from four perspectives that comprise a final paper. First, students perform traditional library research to uncover their chosen group's history and culture in America. Second, insofar as it is possible, students read a novel by an American who identifies with their group. In the third part of the project, students are asked to comment on how they believe their ethnic group fits into the American scene. The final section, a personal statement, allows the student to reflect on ethnicity as a component in American character.

The topic of the CS is meant to be open to change from year to year. The first year, the faculty involved wanted to capitalize on the national debate concerning diversity, an important aspect of the American experience. This focus will undoubtedly give way to another, but the effort to tie together themes from the earlier six courses through the CS will remain a constant.

Conclusions

The psychological topics presented in our three core courses are not meant to be exhaustive introductions or surveys of the field of psychology. Rather, they are meant to serve as

representative examples of how intellectual issues can be approached from a psychological perspective and within an interdisciplinary context. Students undoubtedly learn some factual material about psychology; however, the core curriculum's real intent is to teach them to evaluate problems or debates from the divergent points of view provided by several academic disciplines, including psychology.

Further, these psychological topics are not taught exclusively by psychologists. While plenary sessions on a distinct topic from psychology (e.g., dream analysis in the segment devoted to Freud) may be taught by myself, the smaller discussion groups are led by professors representing classics, education, foreign languages, history, mathematics, and religion. These faculty are free to add their own disciplinary perspectives to the topic so that the interpretation of the psychological material is truly interdisciplinary.

Moravian College's core curriculum has been in operation for a short two years, and growing pains are a reality within any new curriculum. Some topics work, others must be discarded. In order to maintain an interdisciplinary focus and to keep the course material fresh, faculty, too, will cycle in and out of core courses across time. We anticipate that psychology will remain a major part of the core, though perhaps not in the specific fashion I have discussed in this paper. This fact is all to the good if the core curriculum is to continue to develop along with the disciplines taught within it.

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Table 1

Sequence of Seven Core Courses Across Freshmen and Sophomore Years

	Fall Semester	Spring Semester
Freshmen Year	Microcosm/Macrocosm I	Microcosm/Macrocosm II
	Communication	Quantitative Prob. Solving
Sophomore Year	Global Issues	Core Seminar
	Revolutions In Science	